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Continuing The Historical Outlook

February, 1942

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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXXIII, NUMBER 2

FEBRUARY, 1942

Historians Awake!

HAROLD E. DAVIS

Hiram College, Hiram, Ohio

This is a call to the rank and file of history teachers. It is a call born of the present emergency, although the changes demanding a reorientation of historical activity have been developing over a long period of time. But lethargy and inertia excusable in the past are unjustifiable now. History teachers, particularly, have a responsibility for which history will some day hold them accountable.

The easy assumption of historians that their subject, to be real history, must be sterile should be resisted and combatted. The idea that history must be emasculated of all principles for evaluating social tendencies and judging the efficacy of programs of social action should be repudiated emphatically. That history must be rendered impotent to impregnate its readers with vitality for achieving certain social ends and values, powerless to determine courses of social action, useless to galvanize into action latent social tendencies, is a vicious, anti-social doctrine. History should be alive, potent and dynamic. It should be a constructive force in society; and should be restored to its rightful prominence in the field of social action.

Connections between history and the issues and questions of the day are so many and so obvious that they can escape the attention only of those historians who have never thought in large terms before engaging in historical study, and have subsequently accepted their vocation as an excuse for not thinking.

For one of the greatest intellectual conflicts of our generation is between historians and rival philosophies of history. The argument is known to all; yet we still have historians, fortunately a diminishing number, who apparently fail to see that the scientific and cultural value of their work lies in its relevance to the knowledge, culture and social dynamism of their milieu. Fortunately, there is a growing number of historians alive to the relevance of their task, who have sensed the significance of the contemporary clash of historical philosophies. Some of them are its principal protagonists, although the argument is one which also rages extensively outside the ranks of professional historians. But the rank and file of historians have not been aroused. Victims of a myopic system of graduate training which turned them out as skilled investigators but uncritical of the social postulates upon which the value and validity of their investigations depended, and without a sense of their social responsibility, they have not seen the necessity of adjusting themselves and their studies and teaching to the issues presented in the world of science by principles of relativity and by the new organismic psychology. Nor have they seen that the issues presented today in the field of history and historical philosophy are part of the great world-wide social revolution which is taking place around them.

The necessity for historical criteria for social ac-

tion, imperative always, becomes particularly urgent in times of social crisis. The questions of today's disordered world need them desperately. Has democracy demonstrated its capacity to survive in a highly urbanized, mechanized and complex society like ours? What is the meaning to us of the rise of great world-moving forces like communism and fascism? What is the meaning, the source, the implications for the future of the increasing frequency and extent of war? Who is right—Roosevelt or Hitler? Only history—history which painstakingly, thoughtfully and critically examines the course of events of at least the last hundred and fifty years, and probably more, can provide valid criteria for arriving at judgments on such issues.

Times like these place upon the historian a peculiar and heavy responsibility. The efficient functioning of a free society depends upon its achieving a clear realization of its aims and purposes, and a clear orientation of its courses of action in relation to long term tendencies and trends. If we have learned anything from Hitler, we should have learned this, at least. He has known how to play politics in the grand manner, using all the cultural, intellectual, emotional and physical instruments within reach. His prostitution of history is obvious, although not unique, for politics has always prostituted history. But the important thing to notice is that he has recognized clearly the close connections between history and the social dynamism that he has so earnestly wished to cultivate, and has acted upon that basis.

Democratic society today needs historical scholarship and history teaching which recognize themselves and their search for the meaning, the patterns, and the accomplishments of the past as a vital part of the dynamic process of society and culture. The idea of a guild of historians, or of history, apart from the world of present day issues, must be done away with. It is part of the smugness and materialistic self-satisfaction of the democracies and the democratic outlook which came near ruining them during the past two decades—which caused them to miss the world's greatest opportunity for collective security. It is an indication of social and cultural decadence.

History, whatever philosophy animates it—scientific, religious, mystic, rational or irrational, evolutionary or non-evolutionary, materialistic or idealistic—is a living, vital force. It is the consciousness of past, present and destiny, whatever basis it may have in conscious search for guides to social action in roots and patterns of the past, and so lies near the heart of the culture of a nation or society. It is, in fact, the measure of that society's capacity and determination to act purposefully, effectively and successfully. Historical scholarship must assume the social responsibility inherent in history when so understood: the responsibility for contributing to a vital social philosophy which derives its vitality from some meaningful relationship between the present and the past. History teaching must assume its part in this constant revitalizing of present values, institutions and mores by this process of spiritual metabolism.

A Unit in History and English

ESTELLE HIGHTOWER AND L. W. BYERS

Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Alabama

Unit: Uncle Sam Becomes a Millionaire (1875-1900).

Suggested Problem: How an understanding of the last quarter of the nineteenth century helps me to analyze my career.

INTRODUCTION

During the last quarter of the nineteenth century rural and agricultural America was dominated by industrialism. A few men who could manipulate shrewdly or luckily became millionaires, many Americans found opportunities for humanitarian services, and hundreds of thousands became regimented in industry. This change created many of today's problems. As we gain an understanding of this period, we

learn what contributes to the success of a nation and its individuals.

OUTLINE

- I. The national trend of "get rich quick" engulfs the individual.
- A. The development of the nation and the lives of its people were influenced by new opportunities.
 1. The United States becomes the world's leading manufacturing nation.
 2. Uncle Sam's family increases and new stars are added to the flag.
 3. Fortune hunters are lured by the city.
 - a. Cities awaken to community problems.
 - b. Municipal governments attack their problems.
 - c. Urban life leads to increased commercial en-

tertainment.

4. Agriculture lags behind industry.
5. The nation applies science to practical affairs.
6. Americans grow away from the home.
 - a. Individuals begin to assert themselves.
 - b. Recreation diverts family life.
 - c. Higher education becomes popular.
 - d. America's standard of living gains first rank.
7. Wealth and leisure lead to cultural development.
8. Immigration restriction becomes necessary.
9. Big business dominates political parties.
10. The federal government finally abandons its laissez-faire attitude.

B. The development of the nation and the lives of its people were influenced by biography, history, and the essay.

1. "Local color" literature, with its scenery, mode of dress, manner of life, and style of speech, was popular before 1875.
2. The spirit of 1875 to 1900 increasingly emphasized action, literature was built around biographies of Americans who were actively doing, and literary interest has not changed to this day.
3. "Fidelity to fact in the treatment of character" and "skillful delineation of ordinary human life" are the results of American authors to produce realism.
4. The people were interested in literary men who could tour the nation and read from their works.
5. Interest in natural resources brought a literary treatment of nature.
6. Oral literature gives us an insight into the varied lives of the American people.
7. The short story advances to a position of prime importance in our literature.
8. The magazine found readers among individuals, especially women, with increased leisure time.
9. Leisure brings increased interest in music, drama, painting, and all the arts.

SUGGESTED APPROACHES

History

1. Discuss the importance of big business in our present defense program. Enumerate some of the advantages of mass production.
2. Question: Have wars indirectly contributed to the progress of our nation? How has the present war in Europe influenced our national health program? What inventions and industrial improvements have been made? What effect did the Civil War have upon American industry?
3. Show several cartoons that will interest the class in the present conflict between capital and labor.
4. Display maps which show the distribution of population in the United States in 1875 and in

1900 to indicate the rapid development and concentration of population.

English

1. Consider the question "What am I going to do?"
2. Discuss: How do people find out what they are going to do? When do they begin finding out? What is success? Who wants it? What makes it? What is the effect of environment? Whom does it concern? What are character qualities? Are we made of these? Do you measure success by money? For what is it good? Need we be millionaires to benefit our nation? America praises the boy who comes from little or nothing, i.e., newsboy for president. Why praise him? Do we praise the rich boy who works for a living? Why?
3. Question: If you put your life in a book, what would it be? What are biography and autobiography? Why do we read such? What is literature? Why does literature have a form? What causes certain forms to prosper in certain ages?
4. Discuss: Leisure time brings opportunities for culture. Does everyone really spend his leisure in advancing himself? Do any spend time actually back-sliding? What does lives of service for humanity mean? Does anybody really give his life for humanity?
5. Consider: A democratic government gives us opportunities to achieve. Do you believe that? Why?
6. Frontiers still exist for us though the seeking out of such may take on a different appearance.

ANTICIPATED OUTCOMES

A. Knowledges and Understandings:

History

1. The advantages of large industrial organization.
2. The conditions that made it necessary to abandon the laissez-faire policy.
3. The effects of inventions on national progress and on the lives of individuals.
4. The relationship between increasing complexity of urban life and increasing number of social problems.
5. The effect of wealth and leisure on cultural development.

English

1. Authors produced by this period.
2. Factors that contribute to the early success of writers.
3. Characters created as representative of the times.
4. Interest in simple, human lives.
5. The importance of lecturing.
6. The prime importance of the short story.

7. Familiarity with other literary forms of the period.
8. Books and current publications concerning the period of 1875-1900 which are read today.
9. Creators of music, art, and painting and their contributions to worthwhile leisure time activities.
10. The necessary information for an application letter.
11. Correct approaches in interviews; how to interview applicants.

B. Habits and Skills:

History

1. Ability to convert statistics into graphic form and by doing so learn to interpret graphs.
2. Ability to locate statistics in the *World Almanac*.
3. Ability to organize and summarize what is learned through reading, class discussion, and special reports.
4. Habit of using indexes of books to locate information quickly.
5. Habit of alertness toward the needs of society.
6. Habit of reading historical novels and biographies to gain a better understanding of history.
7. Such habits as perseverance and dependability which enable one to make his best contribution to society.
8. Skill in making glossaries of new words and terms.

English

1. Improvement in ability to compose.
2. Ability to outline.
3. Ability to take notes.
4. Ability to use the card catalogue, to read the information on the cards, and to make card index bibliographies.
5. Ability to read and to follow directions.
6. Ability to read different materials at different speeds.
7. Ability to judge, weigh, and select key statements from books.
8. Skill in writing letters for specific information.
9. Skill in using the proper forms in business letters: folding of letters, addressing envelopes, and answering replies.
10. Ability to write.
11. Ability to use correct oral English.
12. Studying correct approaches in interviews and learning how to interview applicants.
13. Ability to observe personality traits.
14. Skill in filling out application blanks for jobs.
15. Ability to analyze oneself.
16. Habit of enlarging vocabularies.

C. Attitudes, Appreciations, and Ideals:

History

1. Attitude of optimism toward the future.
2. Attitude of tolerance toward various groups that have conflicting interests.
3. Attitude of concern for the welfare of all.
4. Appreciation of contributions made by inventors, industrialists and workers who have made possible our high standard of living.
5. Appreciation of the fact that a knowledge of history is necessary to make the present intelligible.
6. Appreciation for the principle that facts are necessary for all intelligent planning.
7. Recognition of one's duty to society to contribute the service for which he is best qualified.

English

1. Attitude of confidence in making progress.
2. Ideal of service before profit.
3. Appreciating that distinction in the United States is won by what one does.
4. Appreciating that happiness is won by finding the right career, the activity at which we desire to work during the time we formerly played.
5. Appreciating that enjoyment of cultural pursuits is gained by opening our minds to them.
6. Appreciation of the importance of appearance and proper dress.
7. Appreciation of neatness and correctness of form in all writing.
8. Appreciation of correctness in written and spoken English usage.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

History

1. Make graphs to show the growth in population and the increase in wealth in the United States from 1870-1900.
2. On two maps of the United States show the distribution of population in 1870 and in 1900. Indicate the center of population on each map. On the map used for 1900 write the names of the states that were admitted during this period.
3. Make a chronological table of the most important inventions from 1875 to 1900. Classify them to indicate the ones that chiefly affected rural or urban life.
4. Locate on a map the transcontinental railroads built during this period.
5. Prepare a floor talk on the effect of the railroads on industrial development and on immigration.
6. Make a list of new occupations that were open to people of this time as a result of inventions made then.

7. Investigate and report on the effect of the disappearance of the frontier on the manufacturing industry.
8. By 1890 one in every five persons in the Great West was foreign-born yet James Bryce said that the West was "the most distinctive American part of America." Explain what James Bryce meant by this statement and how it was true.
9. Tell the story of the changes that occurred in the South that justify the term "The New South" that was used during this period.
10. Investigate the development of several trusts or corporations, such as the Standard Oil Company or the great banking house of J. P. Morgan and Company.
11. According to pupil interests divide into groups to collect facts about the inventors, industrialists, writers, scientists, social workers, artists, and musicians of this period. Each member of the group assumes responsibility for information about one important person. This can be decided within the group. After consulting encyclopedias and biographies, each student writes an interesting biographical sketch of the person of his choice. From this sketch he writes ten clues to the identity of the person. These clues may be used in a class contest patterned after the Dr. I.Q. radio program. To add to the interest, individual scores may be kept.
12. Compile a list of our foreign-born citizens who made great contributions to our nation during this period. Write a summary of the contribution made by each. Suggest results that may be expected from the recent immigration of political refugees from Europe.
13. Make a careful study of immigration from 1875-1900. Prepare a floor talk which will disclose the causes for the change in our immigration policy.
14. Trace the growth of organized labor. List the gains that organized labor has made which are beneficial to labor and to society as a whole. Discuss the threat to the rights of organized labor during national crises.
15. Prepare and present a debate on the subject, Resolved: That our government should have the right to compel capitalists and laborers to settle all their difficulties by arbitration.
16. Draw a cartoon to illustrate the differences between capital and labor.
17. A committee may work together to prepare a list of problems that arose in the nation as a result of the growth of cities and may investigate the attempts that were made to solve these problems as they arose. Problems that were successfully solved and the ones that still are awaiting solution may be indicated.
18. Make a chart which will give a graphic view of the political history of this period. It should include the parties, the presidents, the issues and the most important legislation from 1875-1900.
19. Collect information and give a floor talk on "The Rise of the Populist Party."
20. Prepare a glossary of words and terms that are used in this study. If it is possible, find the new words that entered the vocabulary of the people at this time.
21. In 1893 the World's Fair was held in Chicago. The buildings that housed the products sent from fifty nations give some insight to the architectural ideas of the times. Report to the class the information you are able to obtain concerning American architecture 1875-1900.
22. Outline the attempts of the government to control or regulate big business prior to 1900. Show how big business has attempted to nullify the effect of each law that was passed for its regulation.
23. Collect from your local library's newspaper files important events in your own locality during this period. Select some of the most interesting newspaper articles which describe life from 1875 to 1900 and read them to the class.
24. Just prior to this period the Morrill Act was passed which provided for the establishment of colleges to teach agricultural and mechanical arts. Investigate the provisions of the Act and report to the class the state college which was established as a result of this act (Alabama Polytechnic Institute, 1872).
25. Interest in Latin America seems to date from the period being studied. In 1889 the Pan-American Union was organized. Plan and present at an assembly a play or a pageant that promotes a better understanding of Latin America.
26. Exhibit on the bulletin board materials which prove helpful in understanding various problems of this unit.
27. People living in cities had the opportunity of attending the theater and musical concerts. As the number of cities rapidly increased and the population of the older cities grew from 1875 to 1900, there was increased interest in the arts. Several groups may be formed by class members to investigate the development of painting, music, and the theater during this period.
28. Two or three students may work together to collect the advantages of big business units. Explain why society has not enjoyed all of the benefits that are possible as a result of large industrial organizations. Suggest some ways of controlling such conditions.
29. Prepare a floor talk in which the true meaning of

laissez-faire is made clear. Explain why this policy was a wise one in the nineteenth century. Indicate the changes that occurred and that made it wise to abandon the laissez-faire policy.

30. A class committee may be formed to work with the librarian in locating the biographies and the historical novels of this period. After the reading list is compiled, each member of the class may select at least one book to read. Interesting information found in the various books may be reported at an appropriate time when the different topics are being discussed by the class. For example, *How the Other Half Lives*, by Jacob Riis and *Twenty Years at Hull House*, by Jane Addams contain valuable facts that could be reported in connection with a discussion of city problems.
31. Plan and conduct panel discussions of civic problems.
 - a. Did people living during the last quarter of the nineteenth century have a greater problem in adjusting themselves to the changes of their time than we do today?
 - b. How does an understanding of the period 1875-1900 make the present more intelligible?

English

1. Read the guide sheets concerning "What Am I Going to Do?" Sit around a group of tables arranged together in the library, open copies of biographies, and mention items of interest as the biographies are passed among the students. Inform the class that other library tables contain more biographies which may be checked from the library. (Request the librarian to select and to arrange fifty or more biographies.)
2. Read in class collected materials on "planning a career." Include a treatment of major divisions of employment, subdivisions, fundamental points for occupational study, lists of occupations, lists of source material on the occupations; emotional make-up, emotional stability, character, temperament, and personal appearance analyses, aptitudes, special abilities, and interests, and general intelligence.
3. Take a comprehensive English examination including usage (grammar, diction, punctuation, capitalization, and sentence structure), spelling, and vocabulary.
4. Take diagnostic spelling tests for business and general usage.
5. Read guide sheets and directions and follow directions during the work periods.
6. Take and score with scoring keys personality-inventory tests on neurotic tendency, self-sufficiency, introversion-extraversion, dominance-submission, confidence in oneself, and sociability.
7. Take and score an achievement or intelligence test with scoring keys. (If the students are not in ability groups, the teacher should score the tests.)
8. Check off from the list of occupations those occupations in which there definitely is not immediate interest.
9. Skim biographies in order to find the main ideas.
10. Take notes correctly on reading and on the lectures on the literary men and their works.
11. Visit occupational exhibits if it is possible. (Alabama Polytechnic Institute had such an exhibit in the library.)
12. Talk to people in the different fields of interest. Prepare questions to ask them beforehand. Learn how to introduce yourself.
13. Write for materials in your field of interest.
14. Make an annotated card bibliography index on biographies read.
15. Answer a prepared question sheet on the selected career after gathering information from reading, from the vocational exhibit, and from talks with people in the vocation.
16. Read sheets during this unit study which emphasize the authors' lives on their works and the fact that little daily experiences are the acorns from which big oaks grow.
17. Make a sentence outline on your selected career.
18. Write a composition on "How I Am Fitted for _____ as My Career."
19. Provide in the classroom a business set-up with office equipment, choose officers, select a name for the company and prepare letterhead stationery and envelopes.
20. A student makes a study of the requirements for each student's chosen occupation and prepares questions for the individual interviews. Each student is requested to telephone (on a dial telephone which is in class) at a definite time to learn whether he secured the position. The secretary studies the duties for her position.
21. Study the make-up of application letters and write to the student-company. A student executive acknowledges receipt of each letter and requests personal interviews at stated times. The student is asked to reply by telegram. Interviews are held in which each person applies for a position in his chosen field.
22. Previous to the interview—discuss dress, approach, and business courtesy.
23. During the interviews the class checks appearance, approach, manner, and speech. The students observe the office corps.
24. Give oral talks on selected careers in order to

emphasize importance, work to be done, advantages, disadvantages, occupational preparation, other requirements, income effect on workers, recommendations, and personal qualifications.

EVALUATION

History

1. An objective test to measure knowledge and skills.
2. All written work in the suggested activities.
3. Teacher rating:
Attitudes may be disclosed in floor talks and in class discussion.
Careful observation will afford opportunities for evaluation.
During the class work periods the teacher may observe work habits of the pupils.
4. Pupil evaluation:
Attitudes and understandings may be measured by such exercises as the ones listed below:
List any new interests that you have developed as a result of this study.
Mention any ideas that you have changed as you studied the history of our nation from 1875 to 1900.
Have any of your readings or the class discussions led you to a better understanding of the problems of today? If so, list the problems and explain how this unit helped you.
Enumerate desirable traits of character you have recognized in the personalities of this period.
Rate yourself on these traits.
List any topics connected with this unit that you would like to study further.
(Of course, you can locate materials for yourself and do some independent reading on these topics.)
Has this unit helped you feel any more optimistic about the future? Explain.

English

1. Matching test on assigned literature (biography, history, essay, short story) and lectures in literature.
2. A written analysis of the interview with a list of the executive's questions and the student's answers.
3. Written work listed in the suggested activities.
4. Pupil evaluation:
Check your lists of vocabulary words, spelling words, and English usage errors.
List social and business etiquette learned.
Evaluate yourself. What should I work toward?
Of what value was this unit to you? Be frank and say what you think.

Did you develop any special interests while studying this unit, such as reading biographies, interests in library research, new hobbies, and aroused curiosities?

Means of improving this unit.

Materials you would like to study in the next unit.

SUGGESTED MATERIALS

General Works

- Andrews, E. B. *The History of the Last Quarter-Century in the United States 1870-95* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1895).
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Geographic Games and Tests

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The October, 1941, number of THE SOCIAL STUDIES contained the first of a series of geographic games and tests planned for courses in geography, history and the social studies in general. The series will be continued throughout the year.

The difficulty of the games may be increased

by omitting the answers found at the bottom of some of them, by putting a time limit on the completion of them, or by assigning them simply for study. There will be about 100 games in the entire series so that there is provided a wide range from which selection to fit particular needs may be made.

G 37. OUR NORTHERN NEIGHBORS—A MAP EXERCISE

(Instead of states and territories, the divisions of Canada are called provinces and territories. Labrador and the island of Newfoundland together form a crown colony.)

What division or divisions of Canada

1. Borders the Great Lakes? _____
2. Are called "The Prairie Provinces"? _____
3. Is the smallest province and an island? _____
4. Is the most valuable province? _____
5. Are called "The Maritime Provinces"? _____
6. Has the chief eastern port? _____
7. Is named after Scotland? _____
8. Have furs as a principal product? _____
9. Supplies most of the world's asbestos? _____
10. Is the most mountainous? _____
11. Is of least importance? _____
12. Extends on both sides of the St. Lawrence River? _____
13. Accounts for most of the world's nickel production? _____
14. Possesses the main western port? _____
15. Has the largest of Canada's coal deposits? _____
16. Extends farthest south? _____
17. Has newly found important deposits of radium ore? _____
18. Has a well-populated and industrialized peninsula? _____
19. Are without a single railway? _____
20. Have important eastern ports free of ice all of the year? _____
21. Has the Canadian part of Niagara Falls? _____
22. Possesses both the Welland and Soo canals? _____
23. Has a population mainly French speaking? _____
24. Is shut off from the Atlantic coast by a crown colony? _____
25. Is partly within the North Frigid Zone? _____

G 38. OUR SOUTHERN NEIGHBORS—A STUDY OF MAPS

What country, island, or islands between the United States and South America

1. Is sometimes called "The Pearl of the Antilles?" _____
2. Is the world's leading producer of silver? _____
3. Is an island whose name means "rich port?" _____
4. Were bought by the U. S. to help protect the Panama Canal? _____
5. Is an exporter of high grade iron ore? _____
6. Make up "The Greater Antilles?" _____
7. In Central America is owned by a foreign country? _____
8. Is often referred to as "The Black Republic?" _____
9. Is the possessor of a famous asphalt lake? _____
10. Are the three largest exporters of bananas? _____
11. Has sponge fishing as an important occupation? _____
12. Has given its name to one of the spices? _____
13. Has the largest population of the Central American republics? _____
14. Are a favorite winter resort for Americans? _____
15. Is an island divided into two countries? _____
16. Provides most of the raw material for binder twine? _____
17. Is one of the world's leading producers of cane sugar? _____
18. Used to be one of the world's chief producers of petroleum? _____
19. Is a famous producer of high grade tobacco? _____
20. Is the only country of the New World governed by Negroes? _____
21. Has a possible site for a transoceanic canal? _____
22. Has a coastline only on the Pacific? _____
23. Is the world's chief source of allspice? _____
24. Is an English "banana island?" _____
25. Is cut in two by the Panama Canal? _____

G 39. NATURAL FEATURES OF NORTH AMERICA

The following are the incomplete names of large lakes, rivers, islands, and mountains in North America. The consonants in the first and third groups and the vowels in the second and fourth groups are missing. Complete the names by placing the proper letter above each dash line.

I. LAKES

1. _ a _ e _ i _ _ i _ e _
2. _ a _ e _ i _ _ i _ a _
3. _ a _ e _ _ a _ _ _ a i _
4. _ a _ e _ _ u _ e _ i o _
5. _ _ e a _ _ _ e a _ _ a _ e
6. _ a _ e _ E _ i e
7. _ _ e a _ _ _ a _ e _ a _ e
8. _ a _ e _ _ u _ o _
9. _ _ e a _ _ a _ _ _ a _ e
10. _ a _ e _ O _ _ a _ i o

II. RIVERS

1. M _ ss _ ss _ pp _
2. C _ l _ r _ d _
3. _ h _ _
4. R _ _ _ G r _ n d _
5. St. _ L _ w r _ n c _
6. C _ l _ mb _ _
7. M _ ck _ n z _ _
8. Y _ k _ n
9. H _ ds _ n
10. M _ ss _ _ r _

III. ISLANDS

1. _ a _ _ _ ou _ e _ I _ _ a _ _
2. _ o _ _ _ I _ _ a _ _
3. _ e _ _ _ ou _ _ _ a _ _
4. A _ eu _ i a _ I _ _ a _ _
5. _ u _ a
6. _ a _ a i _ a
7. _ i _ _ a _ i o _ a
8. _ ue _ _ o _ i _ o
9. _ a _ e _ _ e _ o _ I _ _ a _ _
10. _ a _ a _ a I _ _ a _ _

IV. MOUNTAINS

1. G r _ _ n M _ _ n t _ _ n s
2. R _ ck _ M _ _ n t _ _ n s
3. Bl _ _ R _ dg _
4. _ pp _ l _ ch _ _ n
M _ _ nt _ _ ns
5. Wh _ t _ M _ _ nt _ _ ns
6. C _ _ st R _ ng _ s
7. M _ _ nt M c K _ n l _ _
8. S _ _ r r _ N _ v _ d _
9. Br _ _ ks R _ ng _
10. C _ sc _ d _ R _ ng _

G 40. PLACES OF NORTH AMERICA

The following places are in or about North America. The initial letter of each in order given makes up the alphabet. Write in the names.

- A. Chain of islands stretching westward from Alaska. _____
- B. Islands off Florida noted for sponges. _____
- C. Sea south of the West Indies. _____
- D. The world's leading automobile manufacturing center. _____
- E. Extensive swamp of Florida. _____
- F. An important salmon river of British Columbia. _____
- G. Large island northeast of North America. _____
- H. A great bay of Canada. _____
- I. A fertile irrigated valley in southern California. _____
- J. A British "banana island" of the West Indies. _____
- K. Leading winter wheat state of the United States. _____
- L. Great peninsula east of Hudson Bay. _____
- M. Highest mountain peak in North America. _____
- N. Large island off the mouth of the St. Lawrence River. _____
- O. Most important province of Canada. _____
- P. A country of Central America. _____
- Q. An historic city on the St. Lawrence. _____
- R. River between the United States and Mexico. _____
- S. Largest fresh water lake in the world. _____
- T. Bay and city on the west coast of Florida. _____
- U. State possessing a large salt lake. _____
- V. Large island off the coast of British Columbia. _____
- W. Our leading lumber producing state. _____
- Y. A large peninsula of Mexico. _____
- Z. City north of Chicago founded by a religious sect. _____

Revised Historical Viewpoints

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THE COURT, THE CORPORATION AND CONKLING

Justice Black in a recent decision reopens the question of the role played by Conkling in the judicial protection of corporate property. He says that neither history nor language justifies the belief that the Fourteenth Amendment protects corporations. In the Slaughter House Cases the Court held it applied to Negroes only. This decision was based on the privileges and immunities clauses and not on the due process clause. Justice Black declares it is not justifiable to use the word "person," in the latter half of the first section, as meaning a corporation. Its use elsewhere in the amendment shows it only means a human being. On the other hand McLaughlin declares the debates in Congress on the second section of the Fourteenth Amendment show it was not intended to refer to Negroes alone.¹

Justice Black doesn't accept the conspiracy theory that the committee which framed the amendment secretly intended the word "person" to apply to corporations. McLaughlin, in agreement, cites studies on the subject by Boudin and Graham which prove such a conspiracy a myth. They show that Bingham, the alleged conspirator, was merely a defender of human rights and not corporate interests. For one thing there is no evidence that he was a railroad corporation lawyer.

In 1871, Bingham was lukewarm in supporting a bill to protect life insurance companies from state taxation. The bill was defeated after a brief debate. None of the lawyer members of Congress seemed aware of a contemporary Supreme Court decision (Paul vs. Virginia, November 1, 1869) that a corporation was not a citizen. This view and that of Slaughter House Cases was contradicted by the Court in 1886 in the San Mateo Case. It said it did not wish to hear any arguments that a corporation is a person; it conceded the point.

Conkling had made his plea for that interpretation in 1882 when the case was tried before a Federal Circuit Court. At that time the Court was composed of three judges who had sat in the Slaughter House Cases and of these three only Justice Miller had held against the corporations. Conkling's reading from the Journal of the committee which framed the Amendment was not commendable. He declared that various individuals and stock corporations petitioned Congress for relief from discriminatory state

taxes. He merely insinuated that the committee had corporations in mind. His chief legal argument that a corporation was a person was based on opinions of Marshall, Cooley, Field and Sawyer. His plea was short, while Sanderson, another lawyer for the railroad corporation, made an extensive one. He devoted eighteen pages of his brief to an argument that a corporation was a person. Justice Field was in agreement quoting Marshall on the Dartmouth College Case in support, as well as decisions of Judge Cooley. The record of the Court in this case said the defendants contended that corporations are persons within the meaning of the Fourteenth Amendment.

The court was not shocked at arguments that corporations are persons. Conkling's arguments or intimations as to the committee's purposes were not the conclusive reason for the Court's pronouncement. In 1839 Taney declared corporations were persons. In 1877 and 1878 the Supreme Court, in deciding against the railroad corporations, did not rule that they were not entitled to protection under the Fourteenth Amendment. In the Sinking Fund Cases, 1879, Chief Justice Waite said the United States and the States are prohibited from depriving persons or corporations of property without due process of law. Only the Fourteenth Amendment, according to McLaughlin warrants such reasoning.

Due process of law need not be judicial, Conkling declared in his San Mateo argument; it may be administrative, but it must give a hearing. However the phrase may be interpreted, declares McLaughlin, it is only common justice that corporations should not be condemned without legalized process.

If the recognition of corporation rights and protection of property by the judiciary are to be commended or deplored, then the influence of the decisions of Justices Field and Cooley, and the latter's *Constitutional Limitations*, are more important than Conkling's eloquence.

URBAN AND RURAL VOTING IN 1896

Bryan in 1896 appealed to the oppressed farmer and laborer. He offered them a radical program. How did they respond? Did the city and country districts respond similarly throughout the nation?

For purposes of this study any section of 45,000 will be called urban.² In 1896 there were eighty-two such urban areas in the United States. Of the

¹ Andrew C. McLaughlin, "The Court, The Corporation and Conkling," *American Historical Review*, XLVI (October 1940), 45-63.

² William Diamond, "Urban and Rural Voting in 1896," *American Historical Review*, XLVI (January 1941), 281-305.

thirty-two states containing such urban centers McKinley carried twenty and Bryan twelve. These McKinley states had sixty-five cities while Bryan's had seventeen.

In the nation as a whole Bryan polled a considerably smaller percentage of the votes of cities than he did of rural sections. In the McKinley states 38.78 per cent of the urban vote and 41.51 per cent of the rural vote went to Bryan. In the Bryan states 55.12 per cent of the urban vote and 48.34 per cent of the rural vote went to Bryan. He did better in the cities of the more urbanized sections of the nation and of the industrialized states than in the cities of the less populous and more agricultural states.

In New England and the Mountain States alone the cities were more radical than the countryside. New York's cities were more radical than its rural population, while Pennsylvania's cities were more conservative. For the remainder of the nation, in the Populist West and the Solid South, the rural sections of the great majority of the states voted more heavily for Bryan than did the cities located in those states. The states won by Bryan in the West North Central group were strongly Populist. There the conflict of rural and urban populations was clear cut, and there Bryan lost the cities. Of nine Southern states containing cities, three—Maryland, Delaware

and Kentucky—were won by McKinley. In the remaining six, won by Bryan, only the cities in Virginia gave him more votes than the rural sections. In the six mountain states, their only two cities, Denver and Salt Lake City, where more strongly for Bryan than the rural sections. This was due to their desire for Free Silver.

In the thirty-two states there was a high urban-rural conflict. Where industrialism decreased and Populism increased there was less urban-rural conflict. In twenty of the thirty-two states the urban populations were more conservative than the rural. Of the eighty-two cities, forty were more radical than the rural areas around them, and forty-two were more conservative.

In the more highly industrialized states the cities were more radical than the countryside. In the agricultural states the farmer and the rural inhabitant were more radical. This was due to farm tenancy. A high degree of farm ownership tended to make rural populations more conservative. Where Populism was strongest, the cities supported Bryan with considerably less enthusiasm than the rural sections did.

The author cautions against too easy generalizations about future trends in voting. His article is replete with statistics on the vote.

The Defense of American Influence

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"History will show the discovery of America to have been little less than a calamity." This from Ferrero, the Italian historian, partly because it is nonsense, partly because it is brutal, suggests, even by its mistaken negativism, that the United States from its origin to this very minute has influenced the course of world history.

With insatiable curiosity, the United States has gathered unto itself the experience of the whole world and is consolidating and adding to that experience as a civilizing and cultural force. It is necessary for us and other nations to realize the role played by the United States in world life and opinion, and for us to act so that the contributions and international position which are worthy of a greater America are secured.

A certain blindness and national self-satisfaction have charmed us into unconcern in this matter, or our own process of assimilation, rapid growth, and assumed adolescence have made us interested only superficially in what we mean to the rest of the world—unless we over-rate the national itch, which

Emerson abhorred, to know what foreign celebrities think about us.

A broad summary, not proof, of a few claims made for the repercussions of the New World, of which we are the most vigorous part, is instructive. From its discovery some historians date what is called Modern Times. It upset the European balance more than once, changed the trade routes, and put England on the main sea road. Men thought about the New World rather than the Other World. It stimulated humanitarianism beyond mere national or confessional interest, toleration, scientific curiosity, and cosmopolitanism. It put into being forces which shattered medieval forms of politics, economics, industry, and society. It acted as a safety valve for Europe's restless and disillusioned masses. Some persons would even say it laid the basis for European power and wealth.

Thus, the influence has been more than the flowers such as the dog-tooth violet, or shrubs, or trees such as the balm-of-Gilead fir which improved the Old World garden art of the eighteenth century, or

tobacco, or the "Irish potato," or Addison's quip: "We repair our bodies by the drugs from America."

But speaking solely of the corporate life of the United States, what has been the nature of our influence? It has been good, bad, and indifferent. It has been diverse, as is our national life, in all fields from diplomacy to missionaries, from dentistry to movies.

At certain periods, we were revolutionary and foreigners regarded Americans as a sort of "fifth column" against caste and privilege. Karl Marx declared: "... In the eighteenth century, the American war of independence sounded the tocsin for the European middle-class . . . in the nineteenth century, the American civil war sounded it for the European working-class." We can bring Marx's observation of 1867 partly up-to-date by quoting Hitler's *Mein Kampf*. He had not forgotten the World War in which American participation enabled the victors to dictate a peace; consequently he concluded that England differed from any other state in Europe if only because of her linguistic and cultural communion with us.

Having preserved a more ancient dress, the envoys of the American colonies took with them to Paris during and after the American Revolution what came to be the nineteenth century top-hat. This headgear, out of enthusiasm for the Americans, had become fashionable among European liberals. This bourgeois headgear fluctuated as a symbol of ultra-revolutionariness, then ultra-respectability. In the same way, our national influence has run the gamut of effects and qualities. Perhaps now, since we are the only nation which has escaped a serious revolution in the last seventy-five years, we are in the best and most correct sense of the word a truly conservative nation. This conditions our influence and the techniques for defending it.

Turner gave a clue to American history by his "frontier thesis" whereby the influence of the frontier on American life was elevated to a strong position. He and his followers did not care to examine the extension of this interpretation to include the United States as a "frontier" of Europe, thus missing a fertile exercise of historical interpretation. A European analyst described the dissolving force of the American idea of progress—quantity over quality—as one of the few ideas to sink into the European masses in the last fifty years. This is a customary definition for what we would prefer to call the internationalizing of freedom and comfort.

Nor do we know fully what those ten millions—about one-quarter of the total—of emigrants took with them when they returned to Europe after a sojourn here. Nor is there any doubt about the strength and variety of American influence on all continents. The enactment of a high tariff did not end in the champagne parties of a victorious lobby

—it altered the daily life of remote European and Asiatic villages. Communist Russia wished to establish American conditions. Only with the diverting advent of Hitler did the American influence on Germany, as noticeable in the rationalization of industry and the like, take a secondary position. The "American peril" has been a chief cause for the steps toward the federation of Europe, whether in 1902, or with Briand's plan in 1929, or still dimly, with Hitler's diabolical schemes.

What are the factors influencing the spread of American influence? There are obstacles: First of all, the absence of a perspective large enough to comprehend the duties and obligations imposed by the fact that what America thinks or does can have international significance. In a small way, this provinciality of our mind is illustrated by a harsh, blanket judgment on all of our expatriates, because we can never understand why with the vast opportunities in the United States anyone would make his career abroad. Our expatriates include more than the title-marrying heiress, or the robber-baron catering to vices which are international. There are faulty channels of communications and contacts with foreign nations: through misguided charity, unrepresentative tourists, and shabby movies.

But now the drive of opposing philosophies, of a different concept of civilization, has become a new threat as an aspect of total war. America has faced anti-American drives before—as reflected in the anti-emigration literature in Europe in the nineteenth century, in European propaganda in Latin America before Hitler, from our allies when we were spreading unpleasant ideas in neutral countries in 1917-1918. This threat is new only in the sense that the drive is more intense, more subtle, and geared to a long-term mechanism.

The means for defending our influence, even apart from war, have changed radically since 1940, and we must be fully aware of the threats to our influence and the components of our prestige, as well as realistic about the means of getting the full force of American life before the world.

There will be agreement no doubt as to the destructive power of propaganda and fifth columns. But propaganda, like international influence, to be constructively effective must be based on positive domestic values, in business, politics, and culture. The Statue of Liberty will remain a beacon to the world, lighted up not by oily words or synthetic patriotism but by a spontaneous combustion of freedom and achievement. It was no California booster who asserted: "Westward the course of empire takes its way." To the national effort to win victory in this war must be added the intelligence, constructive good will, and energy to win the peace and a high degree of domestic and cultural achievement.

A Course in the Problems of Adolescents for Adolescents

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Is the best concept of education one of learning for future life or one of learning through living? I doubt that any general formula for compromise would be satisfactory to all schools of philosophy, unless we are satisfied with a mere verbalism. At the same time, I do not doubt that we could find a great degree of agreement if we are considering a specific situation. Let us consider the problems of American democracy courses that are offered, and even required by law, in many of our high schools.

I have been teaching a course for ten years which is supposed to combine the usual "problems" course with a half year of high school "economics." We have simply done what the newer texts are doing more and more—considering economic problems along with social and political ones. We have gradually added to the course more material that deals specifically with problems of adolescent youth. Our work seems successful in just about the proportion that we have been able to make the course one in adolescent problems. Of course there must be some standard by which to judge the "success" of the work. I am judging it by my own direct observations and by the tabulated results of hundreds of questionnaires checked by the members of these classes year after year. These questionnaires are not signed and are not even checked over or tabulated until the pupils who checked them have graduated from high school.

My teaching experience in high school has been from grades seven to twelve. I am not, I believe, alone in the observation that during these last two grades, at which time the "problems" course is usually offered, the students are of an age when their interest in their own development and in their relationships with other people is so overwhelming that it almost blots out all other interests. This seems natural and necessary. Why must we, in so much of our teaching try to work against this flood tide of interest instead of taking full advantage of it and the tremendous opportunity for education that it offers? These young people want to understand themselves, as well as understand other people and their relationships with them. They have a keen social interest in what goes on in the world; why some people get themselves into trouble and misery, while others steer a happier course; why their parents understand or fail to understand them; what

the real values of life are and the why of it all. I still hear people deplore the mental and moral state of the adolescents of its generation. I am awed by their mental and moral keenness. If we could help them to live up to their promise of this period we would have a far better world.

In rough outline I will state what a "problems" course for high school seniors should include. I do *not* mean that these topics are always to serve as mere introductions to the more formal presentation of other material. We have all seen too much of this window dressing. The subjects that are listed will be for the main body of the course. I will expect that some students—the number depending on several factors, including localities—to work on into subject matter more concerned with adult problems. They should not be pushed into their work. The intensity and the depth of study of the problems listed will, of course, like other work, vary according to individual ability.

We will include in our course a study of behavior problems that may be approached through present knowledge of psychology. Unless they are learning it somewhere else, they will need to know enough physiology-psychology to know of changes due to growth and emotional reactions. We will want them to know something of the science of psychology and enough of the theories that they may not be completely taken over by the first psychological or pseudopsychological terms or theories that they run across. If they already learned much of this in science classes, it will help us along with our study of behavior problems. We will not encourage confessional meetings but we will be sure that the study starts, for each individual, with his own problems of adjustment.

We have given an increasing amount of time to the study of cliques among high school pupils, in school and out. This topic opens up a large field of study and apparently helps to relieve tensions, to encourage new adjustments, and aids in understanding and tolerance. The various reasons for the formation of certain groups—family background, financial standing, school course, race, religion, etc.—are brought to light and evaluated. One observation commonly made is that people with worth-while common interests are often held apart by relatively

unimportant factors. In this study we have a definite aim of tolerance and the development of larger group loyalties.

Relationships within the family will also come up for consideration. Just how much transfer can be made from the pupil's present family unit to possible future family units, in which the present children will be parents, must depend on individuals and on group differences. Here again, it should be allowed to develop but not pushed; it should be encouraged but not to the point of embarrassment.

Social relationships between boys and girls of high school age need also to be given sufficient time to allow for the development of intelligent consideration. The place of supervision by parents, teachers and other authorities needs to be aired. If pupils have not already sufficiently studied the social and emotional phases of "sex education" this topic should be given plenty of time to give both would-be sophisticates and timid introverts an opportunity to think seriously.

Problems of the individual and his relationships with friends and family naturally branch out into larger group relationships. In this connection we should surely study the school and the community in which the pupils live. This would seem a desirable place to work into problems of government, but I would be especially concerned not to force the step. It is likely that something of government would be studied at the time of election. Let us here once again affirm our whole position. If we can succeed in developing habits of looking for information in meeting the problems of government within the student body of the school and within the family we will have done more for citizenship than any forced, artificially-motivated study of state or national problems could ever do.

The study of behavior problems will take us into problems of misbehavior, delinquency, crime and social behavior, in general. Causes of crime, gangs, and school cliques, "squealing" and all the many problems involved in developing loyalty to a large group are always matters of absorbing interest to high school people.

So far I have included little that could be considered as economic problems, but high school pupils are not entirely free of problems that would come in this category. Personal budgets, problems of earning enough money to maintain prestige, looking forward to a job, listening to advertisements on the radio and seeing them in magazines and on the bill-boards, are some of the more common contacts. How far should this lead into economic theory or a

study of economic institutions? This must depend on groups and individuals. We will not hold anyone back who wishes to branch out further in these fields. We will try to create an atmosphere that will encourage such growth. But we will not push people into a "dismal science" that they neither understand nor appreciate. If we can avoid the deadening effect of much of our "education" we will have a far better chance of creating or at least not spoiling an alert individual who will think keenly about economic problems as he makes contact with them.

In recent years we have been studying the matter of observing and thinking clearly about values. Last year many students read a chapter on values from the manuscript of a text on philosophy being written for high school use.¹ It was read and discussed with much interest. It would be from this angle that I think the most valuable teaching about democracy could be accomplished. The most important education for democracy must come from experience in democratic living. Student government, class discussions and arguments, courageous defense of sincere beliefs, democratic relationships between teacher and pupil as well as between pupil and pupil can all help to develop that respect for the dignity of man that is more fundamental to democracy than any institution. A study of the values set up in the Declaration of Independence, the Bill of Rights in federal and state constitutions as compared with the standards of value set up by the exponents of the totalitarian state may be effective as ways of studying about democracy. But all such studying is of little use without experience in the values of democracy. Making people conscious of these values can then be effective.

No one can write out in any detail such a course. The time allotted for it varies from one semester to two years. Localities, pupils, teachers and classes will differ enough to make adaptations necessary for each teaching situation. We have tried to emphasize one important point: the necessity of making this a course in adolescent problems, encouraging each individual adolescent to proceed as far as he is capable both in the solution of present problems, and in expanding his field of interest. Let us not fool ourselves with thinking that, somehow, we can transfer our own great wisdom, ready made, into the experience of these high school people.

¹ This text is being prepared by Dr. Herman H. Horne, Head of the Department of Philosophy of Education at New York University and Dr. Dorothy J. Cantfil, who has been teaching philosophy at Hempstead (L.I.) High School for several years. It will be published in the near future.

Analyzing Political Attitudes

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The term "political attitude" refers to the mental or emotional set with which an individual approaches a political problem and which determines his line of conduct towards that problem. The sum total of the political attitudes of an individual reveals that person's outlook on the political aspect of social living. It could be learned, for example, whether the person were radical, progressive, liberal, conservative, or reactionary. That which can be said of the individual can likewise be applied to a group or community. The total of the political attitudes and outlooks of the various individuals will reveal the political bent of the group.

All individuals have political attitudes. All are affected by the acts of governmental units, with resulting thoughts, opinions, and attitudes. For some people it is enough to have their own way of thinking and believing. For others this is not enough; they must seek to persuade everyone else to believe that their particular points of view are the best, or the most expedient, or the least expensive, or possibly, that they will benefit the majority. Many people are even willing to die, if necessary, for their political attitudes and beliefs.

Where do these political attitudes come from? What is it that determines the kinds of political attitudes an individual will possess? Why is one individual an extreme radical, while another individual is a stubborn reactionary? How do people "decide" on questions of tariff, government benefits, government ownership, prohibition, taxation, conscription, third term for President, and all the thousand and one other day-to-day questions and problems of politics.

There are many causes and influences that determine political attitudes. In fact these relate to almost every aspect of an individual's life, from his physical body to his religious and philosophical conception of the universe. For example, is it so far-fetched or inconceivable that a person may have some physical defect, and this defect be the cause of a frustration, and this frustration lead the individual to join with other dissatisfied and frustrated individuals in directing their energies to the political field? Or is it so far-fetched that an individual may not believe in a hereafter, and decide to get all that he can in this world, and thus strive after economic or political power? These are but single examples which might be easily multiplied.

While many things have an effect on the political attitudes of individuals, certain particular influences

are apparently more directly significant. Of these we may mention the following: environment, formal schooling, tradition, social interest, economic standing, political experience, the influence of personalities, stereotypes, political parties, special pressure groups and organizations, books, newspapers, radio, and motion pictures.

The environment—the surroundings and atmosphere in which an individual is brought up—plays a vitally important role in molding a person's character. It is the second of the two ingredients in the mold; the other is the hereditary impulses and tendencies. These two together—heredity and environment—determine the type of individual that will be the end result. Assume that a youth lives in a poor factory district. The workers in the neighborhood labor for starvation wages. The youth's father is one of these workers. The youth's whole life is imbued with the ideal of a better life for such people. What will be his attitude towards labor unions, strikes, income taxes, government interference for higher wages, government interference for lower wages? Assume the opposite, that the youth lives in a mansion. He is in continual and constant contact with the idea of profits, profits. He is always hearing that the workers complain needlessly about wages and hours—and are never satisfied. All his acquaintances are in agreement with this idea. What will be this youth's attitude towards labor unions, strikes, income taxes, government interference for higher or lower wages? The environment is of fundamental importance in determining an individual's political attitudes. And this influence is one of long-lasting effect.

It has been argued by some that formal schooling in the United States has as its aim the spreading of knowledge and not the inculcation of attitudes. This is an impossible ideal. For attitudes as well as knowledge constitute a rounded whole of potential political behavior. Some attitudes are presented and demanded as absolutely necessary for the perpetuation of the social order—attitudes towards the duties of citizenship, obeying the laws, voting, respecting the rights of life and property, etc. Aside from such attitudes, which it would be expected, even demanded, that they be taught, it must be remembered that the teachers are human. Some cannot and some will not keep out their own personal views in the discussion of controversial topics. The unknowing pupils, of course, accept the teachers' opinions as completely as they accept their knowledge.

Tradition is also a factor in directing and deciding political opinion. The human animal so loves the traditional and the accustomed that he will suffer much before he will attempt to bring about a change. Tradition is a tie with the past, a union with another day. Involved also is the element of apathy. Tradition is a decision that has been made, and if the tradition is destroyed another one will have to be supplied in its place. There are times when tradition is useless, or antiquated, or superfluous, or meaningless. However it is a condition or an action that once did fill a need. Likewise, some argue that tradition well serves on occasion as a conservative check to what may be hasty or inexperienced action.

Social interest as an intellectual concept may refer to at least two conditions—an interest in the social scene on the part of individuals, or in another sense, the best interest of society. In the first meaning—a well-developed personal interest in the social scene—the degree of interest may range from an idle, objective curiosity to a willingness to offer property and life. In the second meaning—the best interest of society—the interest ranges from a negative, anti-social position, through indifference, to a positive position of working for society. In both meanings, however, social interest serves as important influences in blowing the wind of political opinion.

Certain students of society have sought to prove that politics has an economic base. Certainly, the economic factor is a vital, if not determining, force in the development of political attitudes. There are not many poor who will favor an aristocracy of wealth. There are not many rich who will favor a dictatorship of the proletariat. Often economics and politics are so entwined as to be inseparable, even indistinguishable. This interdependence is becoming more and more pronounced, and more and more generally accepted and recognized.

Political experience is also on the list of factors which aid in forming political opinion. The politician, the layman, the old voter, the young voter, each of these has different political experience. For example, the young voter may favor a law that is impractical or one that will breed bad conditions. The older voter usually will not approve of laws that are extreme or radical. Different voters have different political experiences, involving various disappointments and satisfactions. These are the fuel for the resulting attitudes.

Another factor is the influence of personalities. How much more popular is the man who can speak well, who can excite the admiration of the populace, who understands, and can effectively employ, mass psychology. Of such stuff leaders are made, but demagogues also. These leaders are often followed blindly and loyally by large portions of the population, who love to bask in the sunshine of their leaders' smile,

and will unthinkingly, uncritically register opinions which are in fullest accord with the opinions of *der führer*.

The stereotype is one of the most interesting forms of substitution for original thinking. Social psychologists have written a great deal on the subject. The man who has a stereotyped mental image of a communist as God-hating, bomb-throwing, bewhiskered soap-box orator will vision this sight every time the word communist is before him. "The perspective and the background and the dimension of action are clipped and frozen in the stereotype."¹ There are stereotypes in every field of thought. A single stereotype may be tolerant or intolerant, fair or unfair, but it must be a mental image which comes at the sound or sight of a word or phrase. It has been authoritatively stated that a large part of social thinking is done with stereotypes.

One of the chief conscious and recognized functions of a political party is the development and control of the citizens' political opinions. Its work is carried on through the election of officials, the favoring of laws, propaganda, patronage, and through political diplomacy and maneuvering. It is an organized body which seeks to publicize and popularize and have accepted certain particular political opinions. It seeks, likewise, to have elected as officials men who hold these same opinions, and who will work to have these opinions incorporated into law.

Beside the official political parties there are other pressure organizations which seek to further the cause of certain political doctrines as a part of their general program. These may be special patriotic societies, war veteran legions, labor or employer organizations, foreign groups, etc. These groups are often of extra importance because of their well-knit combinations, and because of their near-dictatorial policies, in some cases, in foisting their opinions on the majority of their members or associates.

Certain reading materials have either direct or indirect political ends in view. Their influence has been tremendously increased with the growth of universal education. The editorial policies of newspapers, and the syndicated columns of political analysts especially serve as challenges to a number of the political problems of our day.

In the determination of political attitudes the very latest developments are the screen and radio. These mechanical tools and toys, which characterize the closely-linked, easily-reached society of our day, are like any other sources of information and opinion. They can be utilized for ends which are highly desirable—political enlightenment and enrichment; they can likewise be utilized for ends that are far

¹ Walter Lippmann, *Public Opinion* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company), 1922, p. 156.

less desirable—political befuddlement and chaos. Observe the role that radio especially plays today in the political scheme. "No farm is so remote, no mine or ranch so distant, no home so poor, but what, overcoming all obstacles of rivers, mountains, lakes, and seas, this mighty voice [of radio] can penetrate to those fastnesses and bring its message, the same message that at the same time is being brought to all the rest of the country, to the factories and the cities and the ships on the sea. But what message? That is always the question."² The demagogue and self-seeker as well as the leader and statesman come directly into the private dwellings of the population. The poisoning of minds and the confusing of thought is carried on simultaneously with the exposition of the desirable opinions and the explanations of the better-informed and the better qualified. From all indices the cinema and radio will continue to be more and more significant as a political influence and a means of spreading political knowledge and propaganda.

Thus, after discussing the various factors—environment, formal schooling, tradition, social interest, economic standing, political experience, the influence of personalities, stereotypes, political parties, special pressure organizations, books, newspapers, the radio and screen—one must conclude that many factors and influences mould, direct and determine political attitudes. To say that any one political opinion is the result of any one influence is dangerous, and is quite apt to be incomplete, if not inaccurate. To say that any particular attitude will be the result of any single factor or group of factors is likewise apt to be wrong. The powers and pressures and influences are intertwined and intermingled. Many factors and influences will enter in to decide any particular individual's reactions and political opinions and attitudes.

The study of political attitudes is a field in which there is much left to be done. What has been accomplished in this field is of very recent date. To consider

² John Dickinson, *Radio as a Cultural Agency*, edited by Tracy F. Tyler (Washington, D.C.: The National Committee on Education by Radio, 1934), p. 39.

this fact alone is highly enlightening and significant.

Political attitudes in our day of mass education, mass appeal, and mass movements are of utmost importance. Ignorance makes for undesirable schemes and repugnant systems. Washington long ago admonished us: "In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened." In our own time we have come to the conclusion that political opinion is the basis of every governmental system. Norman Angell states it this way:

I am suggesting that the true view is this: (1) that the "natural" tendencies of popular judgment are extremely unreliable and faulty; (2) that there is, however, in the long run, no alternative to popular judgment as the basis of government.³

The democracies have public opinion at their foundation. The dictatorships too must be in accord with this new god, even if they do create him in their own image. It is the real management and control of public opinion that is absolutely necessary for the real management and control of any political system, democratic or dictatorial. As Edward L. Bernays has said concerning democracy:

The conscious and intelligent manipulation of the organized habits and opinions of the masses is an important element in democratic society. Those who manipulate this unseen mechanism of society constitute an invisible government which is the true ruling power of our country.⁴

This is just as true of a dictatorship. The only difference is that the mechanism is not unseen and the government is not invisible.

Public opinion—the expression of the masses—is the power which must be led, placated, and conciliated by those who wish to be its agents. The agents understand the techniques. It is now left for the masses to begin to understand themselves.

³ Norman Angell, *The Public Mind* (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1927), p. 172.

⁴ Edward L. Bernays, *Propaganda* (New York: Horace Liveright, 1928), p. 9.

Slavery in the Old Northwest

ALMA G. POTTS

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"There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said Territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been duly convicted." In this manner begins the

sixth article of the Ordinance of 1787 which was devised to provide a form of government for the Northwest Territory. This quotation seems to enunciate

(Continued on page 75)

ILLUSTRATED SECTION

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EUROPE IN THE NEAR EAST



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Constantinople and the Bosphorus. In the foreground is the Turkish Moslem portion known as Stamboul which is connected by a bridge with the business section, Galata. Still further in the distance on the summit of the hill is Pera the European residence quarter. A bit of the Golden Horn appears to the left of the bridge. To the right stretches the Bosphorus disappearing in the distance. The Near Eastern Question has in modern times centered largely in the problem of the egress from and ingress into the Black Sea, the command of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles and above all the possession of Constantinople. "The site is unrivalled," Napoleon said of Constantinople. "It is the Empire of the World."

SERIO-COMIC WAR MAP
FOR THE YEAR 1877.
 BY F. W. ROSE

The cartoon depicts a map of Europe and the Mediterranean region, where various countries are personified as characters. Russia is a giant octopus with tentacles reaching into the Black Sea and Caspian Sea. The United States is a large sphere with tentacles. Britain is a man in a top hat. France is a man in a military uniform. Germany is a man in a military uniform. Italy is a man in a military uniform. Spain is a man in a military uniform. Greece is a man in a military uniform. Turkey is a man in a military uniform. The map is labeled with 'SERIO-COMIC WAR MAP FOR THE YEAR 1877' and 'BY F. W. ROSE'. The cartoon is signed 'DODD' in the bottom right corner.

REFERENCE.
 The Emperor-Russia—lord of the world is
 returned in the Crimea, a reaching forth its arms
 in all directions. Having secured hold of the Turk, it
 is eagerly pushing forward in the hope that it may over-
 whelm him, as it has already done Poland. At the
 same time, Greece seems likely to enter the fold in
 another year, and the Emperor is already busy
 availing his neighbor, Rumania, through being told back
 of his own Austria. The Frenchman, re-
 sisting his late defeat, is carefully examining his
 weapons, and Germany is annually increased in
 his armament and both intend to continue for any
 day.
 Great Britain and Ireland are eagerly
 watching the fray—ready at any moment, it is
 feared, to interfere. Spain is taking his usual
 part in the war, and Italy is enjoying his usual
 part in the war. The Emperor is already
 proud of his

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EUROPE IN THE NEAR EAST

This cartoon entitled "Abdul Hamid's 'final effort' or 'test of power'" (*letzte Kraftprobe*) appeared in the German magazine *Simplicissimus* on May 3, 1909. The cartoon was vividly colored. The Sultan is represented as giving the crescent a blood bath from his pail. On April 13, 1909, Abdul Hamid placed himself at the head of a counter-revolution which was ushered in by a series of massacres notably of Armenians in Angora, Konia, Antioch, Aleppo, Damascus, Beirut, and Adana. The Young Turks soon gained the upper hand and he was deposed. (27th of April)



Courtesy of Ginn and Co.

The Congress of Berlin. This international gathering which met on June 13, 1878, to settle the Near Eastern situation created by the success of Russia in the Russo-Turkish War brought together an illustrious company of statesmen. The artist correctly portrays Bismarck its President as the dominating figure at the Congress as he shakes hands with Count Shuvalov, one of the two Russian plenipotentiaries. The other, Prince Gorchakov, is seated at the extreme left with a hand upon the English prime minister, Lord Beaconsfield. Count Andrassy the Austrian Foreign Minister is just behind Bismarck. The other German representative, Count von Bülow, is seated at the extreme right. The arrangements made for the Near East at the gathering were not upset until 1908, but "no diplomatic performance has ever resulted in such general dissatisfaction."

EUROPE IN THE NEAR EAST



This cartoon by the famous American cartoonist, Frederick Oppers, appeared in 1909—eight days after the actual deposition of the Sultan. The motif is the same as that of the famous cartoon by John Tenniel "Dropping the Pilot" which appeared in *Punch* on the occasion of the dismissal of Bismarck by the Emperor William II.

This cartoon appeared in *Punch* on October 2, 1912. A mobilization of their troops was ordered by the Balkan League on September 30, a move which was openly supported by Russia and France. On October 1, the Turks mobilized. Declarations of War followed within the next two weeks. Some of the figures on the lid are readily identified, notably the Emperor Frances Joseph and John Bull. The central figure in the foreground is probably Count Leopold von Berchtold, who as foreign minister of the Austro-Hungarian Empire sought to avert the outbreak of hostilities. At his left is probably King Carol of Rumania. In the rear is the Bulgarian Tsar, Ferdinand I.



ate clearly the principle of absolute exclusion of the institution of slavery in this area. The article, however, continues: "Provided always that any person escaping into the same, from whom labor or service is lawfully claimed in any one of the original states, such fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed, and conveyed to the person claiming his or her labor or service aforesaid." This latter statement immediately shows the whole article to be something in the nature of a compromise.

Thomas Jefferson in preparing the Ordinance of 1784 had incorporated a provision that slavery be prohibited in all the Western territory, south as well as north of the Ohio, effective in 1801, but this item was defeated in Congress. In 1785 Rufus King made a motion in Congress that slavery be banned in the Northwest at once, but that body never acted upon this subject. The value of Mr. King's suggestion will be seen in subsequent efforts in Indiana, Illinois and Ohio in contravention of Article VI. This article was neither an anti-slavery victory nor a pro-slavery defeat. It was simply a feature of the government of the Northwest, whose meaning at any given time depended upon the interpretation placed upon it by those in authority.

Philip Renault, a Frenchman, while bringing 200 miners to America in 1719 to establish a mining industry, stopped en route at San Domingo and took on 500 slaves. With these he settled in northern Louisiana in the Illinois country near Fort Chartres, later named St. Philip. This marked the beginning of slavery in the region north of the Ohio River. The venture was a failure, and in 1744 Renault sold the Negroes and returned home.

Leniency and kindness seem to have characterized the treatment of these slaves by their new masters. They were fed on maize and used as laborers and house servants. They were given certain liberties on Sundays and on feast days; the children were taught the catechism. This was in contrast with the treatment of slaves in the southern districts of Louisiana, where the master was indifferent, the overseers cruel, and country enervating, and the work degrading.

When, in 1763, this territory passed under English control, many French settlers left, taking their slaves with them. The population of the area decreased from 3,000 to about 1,600, and correspondingly, the number of slaves decreased from 900 to 600.

In order to understand certain events that occurred in that portion of the Northwest which became Ohio, it is necessary to review the interpretation placed upon Article VI by General Arthur St. Clair, who in 1787 was elected by Congress to be governor of the Northwest Territory. When the inhabitants of Vincennes and of Illinois, alarmed at the presence of the article in the Ordinance, called

upon the governor to explain its meaning, he replied that it was not "retroactive but prospective." In other words, according to St. Clair, no new slaves might be introduced, but Congress had no intention of interfering with slavery of a pre-existent nature.

In 1799, certain Virginia officers asked Congress for the privilege of occupying with their slaves the military bounty lands between the Scioto and the Little Miami rivers. This question confronted the legislature of Ohio at its first session. The legislature refused the request on the basis that it was contrary to Article VI.

Two years later there was a petition for the courts to sanction some form of slavery in Ohio. Again the principle of total exclusion was enunciated. Judge Burnett, in handing down the decision, stated: "It would retard settlement and check prosperity of the territory by making labor less reputable."

Early in the nineteenth century, Ohio was admitted to the Union. The first constitutional convention met at Chillicothe on November 1, 1802. Although the status of the Negro does not seem to have been an issue of this convention, still a hundred or so resolutions concerning the matter were submitted. Some urged that he be made a citizen, and that immigration be encouraged. Others suggested that he be granted only the protection of the laws. Still others were in favor of his exclusion from the courts as a witness against whites. The outcome was that the matter was ignored in the constitution and suffrage was given only to white male inhabitants of the state. A motion to strike out the word "white" was defeated by five votes. The efforts of Dr. Manasseh Cutler and his son Ephraim prevented the inclusion of an item for limited slavery in the Bill of Rights. Hence, the status of the Negro was much the same as that of the Indian or the unnaturalized foreigner—he was permitted to live in the state and have the protection of the laws, but was to have no part in the government of the state. Civic duties were not demanded of him, nor were any of the distinctive privileges of citizens allowed him.

The number of Negroes in Ohio was small at that time, about one to each one hundred and ten whites. During the next ten years the colored population increased very rapidly. This ingress was confined to the counties bordering the Ohio River. In the country districts in the northern part of the state, the Negro was a novelty until after the Civil War. The influx of Negroes into southern Ohio as early as 1804 caused alarm on the part of the white settlers. A large portion of these settlers had come from Kentucky and regarded free Negroes with hostility and contempt. The result of this was the passing of a bill by the second session of the legislature which

required Negroes and mulattoes to present certificates of freedom from some court of the United States. Any one who gave employment to or harbored a Negro without such a certificate was subject to a fine. In 1807 the act was amended to state that no Negro should be allowed to settle in Ohio unless he could within twenty days give bonds to the amount of \$500, signed by two witnesses, who should guarantee his good behavior and support. The fine for harboring a colored person without the outlined credentials was raised from \$50 to \$100. The amendment also provided that no Negro should be allowed to give evidence in a case in which a white man was a party. This last act put the Negro at the mercy of unscrupulous whites.

In 1829, it was further decreed that all Negroes who did not comply with the law of 1807 must leave within thirty days. As a result of the strict enforcement of this law, 2,220 Negroes left Cincinnati and founded a settlement in Canada, which they called Wilberforce. It was natural that the greatest opposition should come in Cincinnati, where there was the largest number of Negroes.

Many citizens protested against these infamous "Black Laws," but nothing was done. As late as 1839, the legislature of Ohio refused to repeal them, and went on record as condemning abolition because it would place Negroes on equality with whites.

In the meantime the anti-slavery movement was gaining momentum. The settlers who came into Ohio from other regions, notably the Quakers from Pennsylvania and Virginia, brought definite prejudices against the institution of slavery. The first journal to advocate immediate emancipation was published by a Quaker, Charles Osborn, at Mount Pleasant, Ohio in 1817.

Religious denominations had a great share in promoting anti-slavery opinion, although they in general favored the African colonization project as a solution of the problem. The work of the Underground Railway was carried on mainly by Quakers and ministers, outstanding among whom were Reverend John Rankin and Coffin Levi. Later, to preserve the harmony of its organization, the church changed its policy and openly condemned abolition. The question caused a schism in the Methodist Episcopal Church.

In the foreground of the anti-slavery movement was the figure of James G. Birney. In 1835, having been ostracized for his advanced views in Kentucky, he came to Cincinnati to edit an anti-slavery paper. His press was soon destroyed by mob violence, but this he immediately re-established. In 1840, he entered the race for the presidency of the United States as the candidate of a third party—the Liberty party—whose chief purpose was the abolition of slavery.

About this same time, a number of students withdrew from Lane Seminary in Cincinnati to Oberlin, because of an attempt to suppress free discussion of the slavery question. There began the first aggressive abolition movement in Ohio. The town and college founded there became the great abolition center of the Northwest. Asa Mahan became the first president only on the condition that colored students be admitted.

As a result of the growth of the anti-slavery movement and the continuous agitation of its leaders and its press, the "Black Laws" were finally removed from the statute books of the state of Ohio in 1849.

In 1800, the Northwest territory was divided into Ohio and Indiana, and William Henry Harrison was chosen the first governor of the Indiana territory. In this territory there were many slaves, and many were brought in from the South on indentures, or as so-called "apprentices." Free permission to hold them seemed to be something worth struggling for. It was unquestionable that Governor Harrison believed in the constitutional right of the southern people to carry slavery into the territory, from his repeated commitments on the matter.

While Indiana was in the territorial state, several attempts were made to secure a modification of Article VI. In 1802 there was a petition to Congress for the temporary suspension of the anti-slavery article. The petition was not granted. The same request was made in two subsequent sessions of Congress, with the same result. In 1807, a recommendation was sent to Congress asking suspension of the article for ten years. This, too, was ignored by Congress.

An act passed by the Indiana territory legislature in 1803 provided that a person coming into the territory under contract to serve another was compelled to perform such contract during the term thereof. This law applied to Negroes, mulattoes, and other persons not citizens of the United States. In 1807, the legislature endorsed indentured servitude. Under this code a number of Negroes was brought into the Indiana territory, and the number increased from 135 in 1800 to 749 in 1820. Most of these were brought from Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, the Carolinas, Maryland, and Louisiana. Many were bound out in excess of the legal limit. No one was sufficiently interested to defend the slaves. Slavery existed as completely in the Indiana territory as it did in the southern states, though not in the same form.

The first real political struggle in the Indiana territory occurred over the question of the election of a delegate to Congress in 1808. Jonathan Jennings, an anti-slavery man was elected. This marked the practical end of the slavery struggle. Jennings

was re-elected in 1810 and in 1811. Due to his work and that of his party, the indenture act was repealed in 1810.

In 1809, Illinois was separated from the Indiana territory, and Indiana was left substantially as it is today. When Indiana was about to enter the Union as a state in 1816, slavery was the most important question before the constitutional convention. From the beginning it was evident that the sentiment of the anti-slavery element would prevail. Jonathan Jennings was elected president of this convention which met at Corydon on June 10. The constitution of the state of Indiana as adopted at Corydon contains the following provision concerning slavery: "There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in this state, otherwise than for the punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted. Nor shall any indenture of any Negro or mulatto hereafter made and executed out of the bounds of the state be of any validity within the state." The constitution prohibited the introduction of slavery and rejected involuntary servitude. In addition to this provision, two articles concerning the status of slavery were inserted in the Bill of Rights. These articles simply reenforced the first clause. The state was admitted December 12, 1816.

Still the matter was not fully settled. That future importations were prohibited was clear, but pre-existent slavery was not discussed. In the eastern counties, it was generally considered that slaves and servants were emancipated, and masters acted accordingly, though still feeling charged with the care of keeping old servants from want. The majority, however, continued to hold their slaves. The idea was that the constitution could have no effect on pre-existent slavery; that property in slaves was a vested right, secured by the Ordinance of 1787, and could not be impaired. The courts, for a time, seemed to proceed on this theory. In 1820 there were 190 slaves in Indiana, only forty-seven less than in 1810.

The decision of the court in the case of *Polly vs. Lasselle* brought the slavery question to an absolute end in Indiana, so far as any legal right was concerned. Polly sued her master, Lasselle, for her freedom. Lasselle asserted that she was his slave by purchase. The lower court decided in his favor. An appeal was made to the Supreme Court of the state. This tribunal decided that "it was within the legitimate powers of the convention framing the constitution to prohibit slavery, and it was evident that the framers of the constitution meant absolute prohibition of slavery in the state." After this decision, there was no legal excuse for holding Negroes in servitude, but it was done for years afterwards. In 1830, the local census of Vincennes revealed that there were thirty-two slaves in this place, four more than in all Indiana in 1800. This is the last record

of the continuance of slavery in a state where slavery could not exist.

Illinois had no separate history until 1809. Before 1813, however, a number of petitions seems to have been made here against Article VI. In 1813 the legislature of the territory prohibited the immigration of free Negroes, and ordered the registration of all then in the territory. Violators of this law were subject to severe penalties.

In 1818, at the time of the adoption of the state constitution, there was a sharp controversy as to whether Illinois should become a free state or a slave state. There were three groups—those who wished a pro-slavery constitution, those who were opposed to slavery in any form, and the "compromists" who wished to maintain the existing system of indentures and at the same time give the state some semblance of a free constitution. This last group had its policy adopted. The constitution simply confirmed the existing system. Negroes already indentured did not have their service lessened.

There was considerable debate in Congress over whether Illinois should be admitted to the Union. To some, the stand on slavery was not sufficiently firm. Others took the view that the Northwest Ordinance had no reference to slaves already held. Finally, on December 1, 1818, the state was admitted. The right to retain Negroes as indentured servants was thereby recognized and secured.

Between 1820 and 1823 there was a spirited contest over an attempt of the pro-slavery group in Illinois to call a convention to amend the state constitution so as to open up the state to slavery. Firm in their opposition to this move was the anti-convention group. Due to the able leadership of the anti-slavery group and the questionable methods employed by the opposing faction, the election day was a victory for the anti-convention group. This settled the question of whether Illinois should be ranked as a slave state. It also checked immigration from the south and opened the door to immigration from the north and east. These two last streams poured in rapidly. Under the constitution the indentured system was strengthened. After 1830, however, the number of slaves in Illinois gradually decreased. Some freed their slaves on principle.

Illinois was opposed to the abolitionist's idea of the immediate emancipation of slaves. The majority was content to let the matter rest. Not so with Elijah Lovejoy, who was the most militant abolitionist of the state. He came to Alton, Illinois in 1836 and advocated immediate emancipation in his newspaper. His death at the hands of a mob while trying to prevent the destruction of his press made a martyr of him and gave impetus to the anti-slavery movement in Illinois.

Many cases involving the status of Negroes were

brought to the attention of the courts of Illinois between 1818 and 1840. All of the decisions prior to 1836 seem to have been protective of the indenture system. From this date, a majority of the decisions seem to have been destructive of it. After 1845

every judgment was on the anti-slavery side.¹

¹ This article concerns itself only with Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. The question of slavery never had any political significance in the state history of Michigan and Wisconsin.

Why Teach Geography?

GERTRUDE MCCREARY

Moline, Illinois

Strange names of distant places are filling the pages of our daily papers. Intelligent young Americans are asking "What?" and "Where?" These questions should be answered in a geography classroom, for the subject has particular methods and tools of its own. Geography can answer aimless location queries with material which arouses further interest. It can reveal a multitude of facts and suggest ways to select and use them.

The study of geography may be as practical as trade, as necessary as industry, and as inspiring as the stars—for it embodies all of them. Just what the course becomes depends largely upon the instructor and his objectives. A mere statement of aims will not produce immediate pupil accomplishment, but a continued consciousness of purpose by the teacher will give direction to the course. The aims of our geographers are varied and numerous. We live by discovering, changing, and advancing, not by limiting and defining. The geographic aims which follow pretend to be neither complete nor final.

Informed geographers believe that the lessons of their subject are of value to the individual, vital to the development of a nation, and essential to the well-being of the world. Geography involves space and measurement, abstractions and accuracy. According to Dr. Bowman, every step taken to simplify the expression of things complex leads by so much to imperil accuracy. James F. Chamberlain referred to the subject as one of such breadth that its deeper significance could not be grasped by pupils of the elementary schools.

The instructor may determine the immediate character of a course, but the administrative officers select the subjects to be taught. Public speakers refer to *time* and *space* with oratorical ambiguity and equal emphasis. History representing the time element has received greater emphasis in our American schools. This paper does not wish to discredit the study of history, but to present a survey of geographic objectives with the desire that these aims enumerated may revitalize courses now in progress and secure a better recog-

nition of geography as a subject—particularly in the upper grades of our public schools.

A. Aims made more pertinent by present world conditions:

1. To develop the ability to discover the geographic principles which underlie man's activities—social, economic, and political.
2. To create a sense of human interdependence—avoiding narrow nationalism.
3. To foster in American youth a just and sympathetic attitude toward the people of other countries and their problems.
4. To recognize the need for and the duties implied in a conservation program for natural resources.
5. To develop a better understanding of the daily news reports.

B. Other aims of significance:

1. To develop an understanding of geographic terms.
2. To develop the ability to think geographically.
3. To assist in adjustment to environment.
4. To develop a sense of the significance of location.
5. To develop an alert observation.
6. To create an understanding of civic planning problems.
7. To develop a sense of appreciation of natural beauty.
8. To enjoy the thrill of discovery.
9. To stimulate an interest in travel.
10. To assist young people to become intelligent travelers.
11. To enrich experience and cultivate varied interests.

CONCLUSION

Since the war has given a new impetus to the study

of geography, may the teachers of the subject aim:

1. To make use of the new stimulus to reach desired goals.
2. To be guided always by adequate geographic objectives.

3. To make known the immediate, varied and continuing worth of the subject.

Administrators may then find the inclusion of more advanced geography courses to be an expedient aim for the curriculum builders.

National Defense—A Project

JUDITH CRYMES

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At the beginning of the school year, it was thought best to undertake for several weeks some topic of current interest as an approach to a study of American history. No subject seemed more timely than that of national defense. Since this is a period of great emergency, it appeared important that students be given a broader understanding of just what is happening in the United States today. As the maneuvers were held in Louisiana, delaying the opening of the schools, the pupils were quite conscious of our military efforts. During the summer a number of newspaper clippings and magazines were collected so that the topic could be managed without difficulty.

As an approach to the study, the pupils were told why the subject was selected and its significance. They were then asked to suggest phases of the topic that might be investigated. Naturally they suggested finding what our government was doing about our army, navy, and air force. The outline was based on the material collected. Pupils were asked to bring in any magazine or newspaper article that contained some good information on national defense. A number of magazines were brought in. Before beginning the class work an outline was drawn up. (Airplanes and aviation were discussed in connection with the army and navy.)

I. The Army

- A. The maneuvers
- B. Life in the army
- C. Draft extension
- D. Army morale
- E. The officers
- F. Other phases of army activities

II. The Navy

- A. Our ships
- B. Life in our fighting fleet
- C. Hampton Roads
- D. Our navy's work today

III. Defense Bases

- A. On our chief possessions
 1. Alaska
 2. Hawaii

3. Philippines
4. Panama Canal Zone
- B. Atlantic defense bases
 1. Newfoundland
 2. Bermuda
 3. Puerto Rico
 4. Trinidad
 5. San Lucia
 6. Georgetown (British Guiana)
 7. Iceland
 8. Greenland

IV. Diplomatic Policy

- A. Aid to countries fighting nazism
- B. Pan-American cooperation

V. Industry in Defense

- A. The automobile factories
- B. Airplane factories
- C. Other defense manufacturing
- D. Effect on the people

VI. Defense and the Public Pocketbook

- A. Efforts to prevent inflation
 1. Possible consequences of high prices
- B. Taxes

VII. Other Phases of Defense (Miscellaneous topics)

- A. How the defense program benefits Louisiana
- B. Role of cotton in defense
- C. Civilian defense
- D. The farm program and defense
- E. Old man river helps Uncle Sam arm
- F. Railroads filling record defense demands

Each student was allowed to choose the topic he wished to concentrate on after the class understood the phases of national defense they would study. The number of pupils allowed to study any phase depended upon the amount of material on that subject. A few were allowed to study some topic not mentioned if they could find some information on that aspect of defense.

The class was therefore divided into seven groups corresponding to the divisions of the outline. A chair-

man was chosen for each group by having one pupil in each division volunteer. It was the duty of every chairman to preside as his topic was presented, calling on members of his committee for their oral reports, adding comment of his own, and asking for any discussion from the class after the talks were finished.

Before starting the class work, the students drew up some suggestions as to how oral reports should be given, as: talk loudly enough, make your talk interesting, do not use notes too much, and so forth.

The pupils studied in class for several days after all the class work was assigned. All magazines and newspaper clippings were given out at the beginning of each hour.

Following the study period, the talks were given, which required about three days. Then a general summary of the whole topic was made in class to make certain that each pupil understood the different phases of the subject. This was followed by a test, which revealed that, as a whole, the students had a

much more comprehensive understanding of national defense today.

As a closing question on the test, the pupils were asked to write a paragraph in which they gave their opinion of the study of the past two weeks. "Do you think it was worth while? Why or why not?" (Your answer will in no way affect your grade.) With a few exceptions the students expressed a very warm approval. Some opinions stated, which were representative of the class were:

"I have thoroughly enjoyed our study. It was interesting, and I like to study about things that happened recently, especially in our country."

"I am sure the study we had in the past few weeks was appreciated by the class."

"I think our study the past two weeks has been very beneficial. Too many high school students know little or care even less what is going on around us. The current events affect us directly and are therefore more important than past history."

Visual and Other Aids

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In the opinion of the writer, visual and auditory aids should play an important role in the social studies program of the schools during the present crisis. They must aid in the performance of two important functions, namely, highlighting the existence of democratic values which we have thus far achieved and pointing up the critical issues with which we are faced in the building of a better world. It is not the purpose here to attempt a comprehensive listing either of the democratic values which we now possess or the critical issues which we must face.

In order to illustrate the use of visual and auditory aids in promoting the above objectives, let us focus our attention upon a limited number of specific values and issues. One democratic value which we have attained to a high degree is our public school system. Those agencies which are engaged in producing educational motion pictures could perform a real service by making a series of films depicting the growth and development of the public school system in America. Emphasis should be placed upon significant experiments now being carried on in education throughout the country. For example, it might prove feasible to select significant activities described in the Educational Policies Commission's book, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. In addition

to using such films as a basis for class discussion, the democratic value inherent in the development of our public schools could be clearly set forth by the use of school-made motion pictures depicting the achieving of significant democratic values in the local school system.

Another set of democratic values are our personal freedoms as embodied in the Bill of Rights. These values may be emphasized by such recordings as "Ballad for Americans" and Lincoln's Gettysburg Speech. Of course, both films and recordings will be used as a basis for class discussion in which the student will be encouraged to arrive at his own conclusions on the basis of scientific thinking.

Those who produce films for the schools could do education no greater service than to select a series of fundamental economic, political and social issues, the consideration of which is of first importance to the evolving of a more democratic world order. For example, a clear-cut specific, objective treatment of the tariff issue and its implications for world peace and democracy could be made the subject of an excellent film. Another film could make use of the concept of nationalism as a subject. This film could depict the world conditions existing previous to the rise of nationalism, the causes of the rise of nationalism, the modern fruits of nationalism,

the effects of modern inventions upon its usefulness and its effects upon the possibility of the formation of a world federation.

The concept of race could be filmed as another critical issue. Would it weaken America at war to direct the attention of the pupils to a thoughtful consideration of the democratic implications of the economic, social and political conditions of racial groups within our present social order? Would it weaken America at war for the pupils to consider the possibility and the desirability of a reconstruction which would be more in harmony with our democratic ideals?

Radio programs could also be used in the same manner as films in focusing the pupil's attention upon critical issues.

For those teachers vitally concerned with directing the attention of their pupils upon the reconstruction of a world more in harmony with the democratic ideal, what better method could be utilized than the production of school-made motion pictures which are centered around a critical social issue. The film recently produced by the Hi-Y Club of North High School, Columbus, Ohio, depicting housing conditions and housing problems in Columbus is an excellent example of this method.

It is hoped that this article will suggest to the reader a number of visual and auditory aids to help the pupils to see clearly the democratic values inherent in our present society and to aid the pupils in dealing with the critical issues which must be solved if we are to build a more democratic social order.

NEWS NOTES

Films

Peoples of Canada, a 16 mm. documentary sound film, has been released recently by Coronet Productions, Glenview, Illinois. This film depicts both urban and rural phases of the economic, social, and religious life of modern Canada. Emphasis is placed upon the fact that the country is composed of many nationalities, races, and creeds, each of which has made its contribution to the construction of modern Canada. The film may be purchased for \$30.00 or obtained on a rental basis.

The New York University has added to its film library the documentary film, *Valley Town*. This 16 mm. sound film treats the subject of technological unemployment as it affects an individual worker, his family and his town. As a remedial measure the film points to the need of a national retraining program to teach workers other skills. Write to 71 Washington Square South, New York City, for descriptive folder and rental rates.

The Springfield Adult Education Council and the

Bureau of Adult Education of the Springfield, Massachusetts, Public Schools recently held a film forum upon the general theme, *Problems of a Democracy*. Carefully selected films were used to illustrate ten topics vital to a democratic society. The Program Notes which include a bibliography on each subject can be secured by writing to Louis S. Goodman, Boston University School of Education, Boston, Massachusetts.

The United States Office of Education recently has published a 91 page booklet entitled, *Sources of Visual Aids for Instructional Use in Schools*. This publication includes information concerning charts and graphs, exhibits, film strips, slide films and still films, lantern slides, motion pictures, picture and photographs, projectors, and sources of information on the educational use of visual aids. The booklet may be obtained from the United States Government Printing Office for fifteen cents.

Radio

A *Publications List* of the Evaluation of School Broadcasts, a research project of the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, may be obtained by writing to the Bureau.

The following bulletins issued by the research project are of interest to social studies teachers:

Ideas That Came True: An Appraisal of a Series of Social Studies Broadcasts. (1941) Alton O'Steen and J. Robert Miles. 11 pp., 10 cents. A study of two sequences of school broadcasts in the *Ideas That Came True* series of the National Broadcasting Company. The technique of weekly reports from teachers is used in one sequence, and the technique of critical appraisal by experts is used in the second sequence.

Americans at Work: A Critical Appraisal of Twenty-six School Broadcasts of the Columbia Broadcasting System, 1940-41. (1941) Seerley Reid, 50 pp., 25 cents. A detailed analysis based upon weekly appraisals by teachers of the 1940-41 *Americans at Work* series broadcast by Columbia's American School of the Air. Individual programs, and the series as a whole, were analyzed in terms of specific criteria dealing with educational value, clarity and comprehensibility, and appeal to listeners. The bulletin presents a series of recommendations for social studies broadcasts which may be of interest to broadcasters and teachers generally.

New Horizons: A Critical Appraisal of Twenty-six School Broadcasts Produced by the Columbia Broadcasting System, 1940-41 (1941) Seerley Reid. 50 pp., 25 cents. A detailed analysis based upon weekly appraisals by teachers of the 1940-41 *New Horizons* series broadcast by Columbia's American School of the Air. Individual programs, and the

series as a whole, were analyzed in terms of specific criteria dealing with educational value, clarity and comprehensibility, and appeal to listeners.

How Teachers Use School Broadcasts. (1941) Norman Woelfel and M. Kimball Wiles. 6 pp., 10 cents. A summary report of classroom radio utilization practices by selected teachers. The report is based upon a special utilization checklist filled out regularly for five series of social-studies broadcasts.

Frontiers of Democracy: An Evaluation of a Network Series of Social-Studies Broadcasts. (1941) Seerley Reid. Approx. 50 pp., 25 cents. An evaluation of a 1939-40 series of Columbia's American School of the Air, involving the following tech-

niques: weekly and end-of-term teacher questionnaires; a student questionnaire; information, attitudes, and thinking tests; a nation-wide audience survey; weekly listening and appraisal of the broadcasts by members of the Evaluation of School Broadcasts staff.

The Use of Recordings in a High School Social Studies Class. (1941) Norman Woelfel. Approx. 35 pp., 20 cents. A detailed study of test results and of personal reactions of a small group of high school students who listened regularly as classroom group to transcriptions of the *Epic of America* radio series originally produced by the Federal Theatre, Radio Division, over the Mutual Broadcasting System.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

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THE NEW EDUCATION

In the quiet of Ann Arbor, William H. Kilpatrick recently took stock of his philosophy of education. In the leading article of *School and Society* for November 29, he compressed his basic ideas into a description of "The Philosophy of the New Education." Coming from the pen of one of the foremost exponents of progressive education, this essay is important.

The implications of Dr. Kilpatrick's theory of learning are too far reaching to be confined in a few paragraphs. His central thought is deceptively simple. To learn, one must experience. When what is experienced stays on to affect later conduct or living, learning takes place. If, as we sit and read a story, the clock on the mantel strikes six and we continue our reading unconcernedly, the experience of hearing the clock is not learning. But if we lay aside the story, prepare ourselves for dinner, go to the dining room, seat ourselves, etc., then the experience of hearing the clock stays on and affects our further living, in thought and in action. Learning occurs. We accept something in the on-going life process and we respond to it, making in the starting point for the next stage in the process of living.

This thought was elaborated and refined until it produced this summary:

Each one learns what he lives; which means that he learns his responses, only his responses and all his responses, learning each as he accepts it in his own heart to act on and live by. He learns each such accepted response in the degree that he counts it important and in the degree that it interrelates itself with what he

already knows. And what he learns he thus builds at once into character, there to serve as the foundation of further living and learning.

The curriculum, then, cannot be traditional and readymade, but must be an emerging one. It must be constructed by living and in living. How this is to be done, Dr. Kilpatrick does not tell in this essay. Nor does he explain how critical intelligence shall be active in this response learning. That such intelligence is vitally important, he makes clear. But, somehow, this account of the learning process, although it has creative possibilities, does not seem to give intelligence its rightful place. One recalls Luther's difficulty in making a place for good works after he had built up his philosophy on the basis of justification by faith.

An application of this philosophy, at least in part, is being made in an experiment conducted by a committee of principals in New York State to answer the question: "What kind of preparation is needed by youth who are growing up in a rapidly changing world?" Dr. Warren W. Coxe, director of the division of research of the New York State Education Department, reported on it in the November number of *The Clearing House* ("Social Change").

Following the lead of Hoover's Committee on Recent Social Trends, the principals proposed many areas of living in which trends and conditions could be studied to show the fact of continuous change and to suggest ways for continuous readaptation to our world of change. Dr. Coxe relates how far the experiment has proceeded, how the committee's materials may be used, and what is being learned from the project. Growing interest in the problem of how

to educate youth for a changing world makes this experiment one for teachers to observe and study.

When philosophy and experiment enter the classroom they must submit to the scrutiny of testing. Germane, therefore, to this presentation is an account of a standardized series of testing instruments to appraise the work of progressive and traditional schools which are being constructed by Professor Frederick Pistor of Hunter College of the City of New York. He described one of these instruments in an article on "A Standardized Measure of Classroom Democracy," in the *Journal of Educational Research* for November.

Professor Pistor drew attention first to serious shortcomings existing in measurement programs and presented a detailed diagram comparing the appraisal instruments of Collings, Pistor, and Wrightstone. He hopes, by his series of tests, to overcome many existing weaknesses in testing instruments. The test now ready for use, which he describes, is his Classroom Rating Blank entitled, "Practicing Democracy in the Classroom." It was made from data secured from controlled samples in 780 elementary and secondary schools in all parts of the country. These schools were equally divided among democratic, middle-ground, and autocratic types. One hundred and twenty classroom practices were selected for measurement, and norms were established for them individually, in total, and as grouped in twelve sections. This rating blank is a broadly inclusive one, which should be useful to teachers who desire to measure the effectiveness of their work in preparing pupils for democratic participation in living.

BUILDING DEMOCRACY BY RADIO

We are beginning to be aware of unfathomed possibilities in the radio as a social invention for building human unity. Hitler found it of inestimable worth in unifying Germany under the nazi standard. James Harvey Robinson, in *Humanizing Knowledge*, described the need for spreading among the masses the knowledge discovered by the scholars and scientists. Writing almost a generation ago, he thought principally in terms of printing. Mr. Harry Bricker, in *School and Society* for November 29, proposed that the movies and, even more, the radio be used to humanize knowledge ("Implementing Democracy").

Mr. Bricker pointed out that the average citizen already knows many of the techniques and mechanisms of democracy. Groups of citizens everywhere are democratically solving important problems, locally. There come to mind examples of local, democratic action to meet such problems as juvenile delinquency, strikes, recreation, and unemployment. By the radio, knowledge of such "experiments and adventures in democracy" could be spread to the nation,

advancing us all more quickly by acquainting us all with successful practice by any of us. What used to be done by word of mouth, face to face, and by book can now be done wholesale by our modern techniques of communication. The thought of Mr. Bricker is one which is spreading among people and should be spread even faster. For it draws attention to a social invention not yet properly appreciated. The President has exemplified by his fireside chats the mass educative uses of radio, without sacrificing democracy. The long unsolved problem of rulers desirous of reaching their people quickly has vanished before the radio, and democracy has in its service an implement of bewildering possibilities.

CCC, NYA, AND SCHOOLS

Either the established educational system is going to be responsible for the education and guidance for all youth, with the federal government supplying financial aid and leadership, or the federal government is going to be responsible for vocational training, guidance, and other educational services for a large portion of older youth, with the state-and-local educational agencies playing a subordinate role.

This challenge was made in a 1941 report of the Educational Policies Commission on "The Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration and the Public Schools," which was condensed in the December 15 issue of *Frontiers of Democracy* ("The CCC, the NYA and the Public Schools").

Schoolmen have been troubled in recent years by the problem of the school's responsibility for youth who are out of school, as has been mentioned here from time to time. Now the Educational Policies Commission throws down the gage. Other issues are stated and the methods for meeting them are described. But the basic issue remains. It is made more difficult because our tradition of generations of state and local control of education seems to be an obstacle to the solution of a problem which cuts across all state and local boundaries.

The commission has no sure-fire solution, but it does regard the present as a favorable time to make the transition and re-align our educational programs for youth. High school teachers, particularly affected by this problem, will want to study the Commission's suggestions. A copy of the report can be secured for twenty-five cents from the Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D.C.

In the same issue of *Frontiers of Democracy*, vigorous criticism of the Commission's report was registered by Professor Harl R. Douglass ("The Mysterious Stranger—The Policies Commission's Stand") and James J. McEntee, Director of the Civilian

Conservation Corps ("The Point of View of the CCC").

A rather lengthy summary of the report was given also in *The Education Digest* for December.

AMERICA SPEAKS

Under the title of "America Speaks" Professor Harold Rugg, in the November issue of *Frontiers of Democracy*, began a department which will report and interpret events in arts and sciences, social engineering and technology. Concerned with America's future, its purpose is "to measure the vitality and direction of American imagination and production."

In the first number, Dr. Rugg, himself an engineer, indicated the sign-posts of the morrow in social engineering. From the publications of the National Resources Planning Board, from housing activities, and from articles such as the series by Bruce Bliven in *The New Republic* on "Men Who Make the Future," examples are cited of experimental and creative work in various fields of social engineering. In the December issue the progress in architecture was reviewed: "The House of the American: Architecture and Civilization." Not the least valuable part of the review is the bibliographical material included.

Dr. Rugg's department stirs up the mind and, in times like these, arouses hope for our future. Supplementing his survey of architecture was Talbot Hamlin's "The Trend of American Architecture," in the January issue of *Harper's Magazine*. From the vantage points of years as a practicing architect and teacher at Columbia University, Mr. Hamlin appraised the contributions of American architecture to American culture and indicates more fruitful lines of development. Dams, bridges, highways, parkways and playgrounds, industrial plants, and community planning of several kinds are criticized in terms of their gifts to our civilization, along with school buildings, houses, hospitals, and similar structures.

WHIGS AND THE G.O.P.

The Whig Party was one of the two major parties in the United States in 1852. But in 1856 it was only a memory. Is there a parallel here, for the Republican Party in 1940 and 1944, asked the distinguished historian, Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr., in *The Nation* for December 6 ("Can Willkie Save the Republican Party?")?

Are the appeasers within its ranks killing the G.O.P.? Business, fearful for profits in the gales of strife in the 1850's, urged appeasement of the South at a time when American democracy was growing in the conviction that it could not tolerate slavery, the visible outrage of human rights. Democratic reform could not move forward while human slavery existed. The decision to fight slavery was based upon much

the same grounds as the decision of F. D. Roosevelt to fight nazism: "It was the prescription of moral duty and political necessity."

William H. Seward, then, tried to save the Whigs as Wendell Willkie, now, seeks to save the Republican Party. Both held that democracy could not compromise with despotism, and live. The Whig appeasers joined Buchanan, those of the Lindbergh-America-First type joined the Know-Nothing Party of nativism and religious discrimination, and the Conscience Whigs followed Seward into the new Republican Party.

Our war with Japan, which broke out after Professor Schlesinger wrote, may destroy the parallel. But he makes many penetrating remarks about class interests and party appeasement policies in the face of moral issues, not only here but abroad, in France and in Great Britain. His observation, for example, that business appeasers in Britain who found Chamberlain impotent could turn without fear to the aristocratic Conservatives, whereas in this country they can turn from plutocratic conservatism only to radical democracy, whether Jacksonian or Rooseveltian, suggests why many reforms have been delayed in this country. Wendell Willkie seeks to open Republican eyes to the fact that nazism, like slavery, will in the end destroy liberty and freedom of business, unless it is itself destroyed. This is a great task for a great man. In the Republican party, only Mr. Willkie seems equal to it, according to Professor Schlesinger.

This article provoked comment, and in its December 13 issue *The Nation* printed replies from eminent Republicans. They dissented from the thesis that isolationism may divide and destroy the Republican Party as slavery did the Whig Party ("The Future of the Republican Party"). Mr. Willkie himself wrote at some length appreciatively and only in part in disagreement. Briefer replies by Senators Vandenberg and Taft and Governor Stassen registered strong dissent, although not convincingly. One wonders if the Whigs would not have survived if "Bleeding Kansas" had precipitated the Civil War in 1854, two years before the presidential election. At any rate, the Japanese attack upon the United States on December 7 injects into the political situation a war element which was missing in 1856.

NEW BRITISH DEMOCRACY

In the *Yale Review* for December, Julian S. Huxley, the distinguished biologist, sketched what he regarded as the desirable features of the new Britain: "Towards a New British Democracy." Like others, Mr. Huxley envisages an era in which society will be a more organic whole, emphasizing living relations and respect for human worth and dignity. Hitler sensed the need and sought for wholeness through dictatorship crushing individual worth and

difference. Laissez faire cannot give the abiding sense of social duties and responsibilities which are essential for wholeness. In an organic relationship individual freedom will have to be distinguished from one's freedom as a business man or official. The liberties of an individual will be re-defined when his occupation or other social function confers status and social responsibilities upon him. Class privilege based upon property or social position, and nationalism as absolute sovereignty must go. Social atomism must become an integration of men.

A problem is evident here. In an organic society both the individuals and the groups have claims upon the society as well as responsibilities toward it. But the claims which are valid on one level may not be valid on another. John Jones, as a person, is guaranteed many liberties. As head of a corporation he cannot use those liberties, for example, to do as he likes with his business. For as a corporation head his relations are social primarily, relations of management and labor, of business and government, and so on. Interests of sectional groups may be injurious to the whole. Responsibilities to stockholders may be exercised to the detriment of the general welfare. So social organization will have to be worked out in new terms, in terms of people, of their welfare, and of human development, and not in terms of profits, property, or state.

The new order will differ from the present one not only in this humanizing and socializing of groups and interests but in its emphasis upon community service. There is such emphasis in war times. Why cannot it exist in peace time? Says Mr. Huxley, when the profit motive becomes subsidiary and citizens are socially and economically secure, neither the individual nor business will fear national service projects. "It remains for the democracies to generalize the system in some form of true national service, and in such a way that the work that gets done is of real value to the community, while at the same time giving the individual a sense of satisfaction and achievement." Hundreds of men and women today love and value the community service of their civilian pursuits more than their economic gain.

No less important for the new order are self-development and enjoyment. Too often, at present, these are interpreted to mean mere recreation, and are commercialized. Too often the mass of men have been unaware of leisure activities which enrich and ennoble life. Crowded cities frustrate such life. Can cities be planned to enhance it? The community must be about the business of promoting the fine arts of every sort. Science and scientific investigation—in physical and social science—hold great promise for human interest and development, as many men and women demonstrate daily.

Perhaps Mr. Huxley's gravest problem is that of

the fixity of our minds. Too often to many people, what has not been cannot be. In the place of drift he counsels a study of trends and signs in order that we may take the turn in the road of history which will bring us nearer to our heart's desire.

A PROFITABLE MISCELLANY

Foreign Affairs for January offered a group of essays of special importance to teachers of history. The leading article is a study of "Napoleon and Hitler," by Crane Brinton of Harvard University, author of the noted work, *The Anatomy of Revolution*. Hitler, like Napoleon, will be broken by the indestructible habits and sentiments of the diverse peoples of Europe. They will not accept unification by the crushing force of the dictator. Permanent government must rest upon the consent and habit of the governed, and this the dictators lack. Professor Brinton's comparisons of the Napoleonic Era and the present are enlightening.

The exiled President of Czechoslovakia, Eduard Benes, followed Dr. Brinton with suggestions for "The Organization of Postwar Europe." To secure the necessary equilibrium Dr. Benes proposes that some seven regional, federal blocs be established, each itself a politico-economic unit. Germany, he believes, must become a decentralized confederation, with Prussia split into several states. But voluntary agreement and not force must be the principal tool of reorganization, while some kind of federation of nations must be created to prevent absolutism and militarism from arising within a nation and causing aggression against a neighbor. Archduke Otto of Austria, in "Danubian Reconstruction," examined post-war Central Europe, the region which President Benes called the most difficult to plan for. And Professor Dexter Perkins, authority on the Monroe Doctrine, brought America into the European picture in "Bringing the Monroe Doctrine Up to Date." The Monroe Doctrine opposes the extension of European systems to our hemisphere, while Hitler, thanks to modern technology, shows how such systems can be extended to our shores in ways undreamed of a century ago. Secretary Hull recognized that fact publicly in a statement to Herr von Ribbentrop in July, 1940. The Monroe Doctrine cannot be a doctrine of isolation, and survive in a world so shrunk by our means of communication and transportation.

Edwin G. Nourse, director of the Institute of Economics of the Brookings Institute made some revolutionary observations on "The Nature and Future of Private Enterprise" before a recent meeting of the National Association of Manufacturers (*Vital Speeches*, December 15). Private enterprise, like nations, has been anarchic and exploitive, characterized by daring and irresponsibility. Within the nation, business men have insisted that government be one

of laws or principles and not of men. But in business itself the heads of enterprises too often have not cramped their personal leadership by principles or public responsibility. It is time that business, too, be a matter of principle and not of men.

One of the greatest contributions that private business leadership could make to the future of the enterprise system would be to participate in the progressive formulation of the principles under which it can best discharge its responsibilities to its several classes of clients—consumers, workers, capitalists—in the future.

One may add that the social value of this contribution would be greatly enhanced if recognized also by organized labor. If business enterprise formulated what its broad public responsibilities were, it would be easier than at present for government to state its intentions regarding business, a frequent complaint of those whose slogan is, "Leave us alone."

No crisis which business has ever faced will equal that which will follow the present war. It will be global in extent. Neither laissez faire nor national thinking will be competent to cope with it. Mr. Nourse is convinced that private enterprise, in the post-war period, will be able to provide greater economic benefits than any other system. But it can do so only by united and daring programs of action, "by exercising enterprise as well as being private." Individual concerns cannot bear the risks. But they can be borne if private business as a whole adopts a "concerted strategy of advance," through the free consent of major business companies. We need less individual autocracy in business and more democratic cooperation by business groups to devise and implement broad, economic policies and programs.

Two articles which appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly* for December are especially attractive for teachers. Professor Samuel E. Morison of Harvard University is publishing a biography of Columbus. From it, three chapters are being used as magazine articles. The first is on "Admiral of the Ocean Sea: I. The Discovery of America." Professor Morison, distinguished as an historian of America and a lover of the sea, has actually followed the footsteps of Columbus. His account of the discovery is circumstantial, sufficiently imaginative to be fascinating, and yet is safely tied to painstaking research.

The other article, on "John Dewey," is by one of Dewey's noted pupils, Max Eastman. The portrait he draws is salty, human, and familiar. John Dewey doffs the garb of philosopher and educator and becomes the human being he really is. Mr. Eastman thus succinctly and trenchantly summarizes Dewey's educational philosophy:

ey's educational philosophy:

His idea was that life in school ought to be enough like life outside so that an interest in knowledge will arise in the child's mind as it did in the mind of the race—spontaneously. If you provide a sufficient variety of activities, and there's enough knowledge lying around, and the teacher understands the natural relation between knowledge and interested action, children can have fun getting educated and will love to go to school.

John Dewey, born in 1859, is the greatest thinker America has yet produced. That fact alone makes him of vast importance to teachers who traffic in thinking. Attachment of feeling is necessary if intellectual appreciation is to acquire depth, and Mr. Eastman's loving appraisal performs that necessary service.

In *Harper's Magazine* for December, Roy Helton explained why he is led to believe that an "Anti-Industrial Revolution" is now in progress. His voice is not the first to warn that machine technology must not be master of man. Industrialism and invention must be valued in terms of their ministry to man's genius and spirit.

The December *Fortune* had a profusely illustrated series of articles on "How Good Is the Army?" They cover ordinance, manpower, and training. A complement to this is the discussion of "Europe" in several *Fortune* articles which interpret her past and the present war. Maps show the distribution of European languages, religions, industry and agriculture, and political complexion. Later issues will continue the discussion, with an eye on the peace that should follow the war.

STUDENT CONTEST

On March 27, 1942 will be held the sixteenth National High School Contest conducted by the League of Nations Association for students in public high schools. First prize is a trip to South America next summer. Other prizes include college scholarships and cash awards.

The contest will deal with the problem of organizing the world of peace and will be based upon two pamphlets: the Association's *Essential Facts Underlying World Organization* and the Foreign Policy Association's Headline Book, *The Struggle for World Order*, by Vera M. Dean. All details about the contest may be secured from the Educational Committee of the League of Nations Associations, Inc., 8 West 40 Street, New York City.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia

Intellectual America: Ideas on the March. By Oscar Cargill. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. xxi, 777. \$5.00.

Mr. Cargill's *Intellectual America* is a projected two volume study of our contemporary culture. This first volume treats "the European ideologies which have swept into this country in modern times." The second (*Ideas in Conflict*) will deal more directly with political and social ideas.

Intellectual America, its author is quick to point out, "is not the pattern of any previous book." Against an ample European background, Mr. Cargill examines the main schools raised up in America by the "invading" ideologies: the Naturalists (Crane, Dreiser, Pearl Buck, Farrell), the Decadents (Pound, Eliot, Hemingway, Faulkner), the Intelligentsia (Mencken, Kittredge, Babbitt, Hutchins), the Primitivists (O'Neill, Fitzgerald, Gertrude Stein, Faulkner), the Freudians (Henry Adams, Anderson, O'Neill, Jeffers). Under these rubrics he discusses a good many contemporary writers with zest and intelligence. These categories, however, do not seem altogether convincing, and Mr. Cargill's employment of them does not really demonstrate that they are the most useful way of approaching the literature of the day. The scheme, one feels, is too artificial; it somehow lacks inevitability. Most of the important authors belong in several groups. (It must have been hard, for example, to decide whether Faulkner was predominantly a Naturalist, a Decadent, a Primitivist or a Freudian.) And the case is not helped by a certain hostility which one notes in the author toward his ideologies, which he calls at the end "the infections and distempers of Europe," a hostility visible also in the rather disparaging labels he gives them and in such remarks as one of Freud: "No other thinker combines so many of the subversive trends of contemporary thought in his philosophy."

An additional shortcoming in Mr. Cargill's scheme is its tendency to interpret writers in terms of literary influences. No doubt all these authors were stirred and excited by literary fashions; but sometimes one can understand more about them by assuming that similar problems breed similar solutions than by succumbing to naive theories of literary imitation. The author tends regularly to ignore or understate the importance for these writers of their native literary traditions or of their own problems in favor of searching their work for the influence of other authors. This comes out flatly in occasional inadver-

tencies, such as remarking of Crane's *Maggie* that it is "wholly the product of reading Zola's *L'Assommoir*" or observing that Mencken's *The American Language* resulted from his passion to imitate the philological interests of Nietzsche.

Within the general framework, which this reviewer does not believe demonstrates its usefulness, *Intellectual America* has many positive merits. It has a healthy, if somewhat capricious, catholicity in the choice of authors. It is good, for example, to see G. Stanley Hall, Clarence Darrow, Earnest Hooton and Brann the Iconoclast figuring in intellectual history; but their appearance raises the question of criteria of selection: why not Harold Stearns, Bernard De Voto, Edmund Wilson, Karen Horney, Josiah Royce? The author, moreover, makes many acute remarks; but he has a tendency to drop some of his best insights in haste and scurry on without working out their implications in a way which will test their value. He suggests, for example: "Are not Poe's tales of sadistic horror the result of his efforts to secure an ethereal, unreal beauty in his verse?"—but that is all we hear of this particular idea, and that is not enough to justify it. Mr. Cargill's style, too, is lively, confident and readable, with a special skill in summarizing the biographies of authors and the plots of books; but occasionally the confidence turns into cocksureness, and sometimes into brashness.

This account does not perhaps indicate the generosity and abundance of the book. It is packed with interesting facts, theories, suggestions, hunches, intuitions, and everything else; it is based on wide reading and ingenious speculation; but it suffers from a lack of concentration and steady focus. I hope that Mr. Cargill's next volume will not attempt to deal with the political scene so exclusively in terms of European influences. They have been important, but not decisive, and *Ideas on the March* gives too often the impression that they have been decisive.

ARTHUR M. SCHLESINGER, JR.

Harvard University
Cambridge, Massachusetts

Marcus Whitman, Crusader: Part Three, 1843 to 1847. Edited by Archer B. Hulbert and Dorothy P. Hulbert. Denver: The Stewart Commission of Colorado College and The Denver Public Library, 1941. Pp. xiii, 275. \$5.00.

This volume deals with the last years of the Whitmans' missionary labors and their tragic death at the

hands of the very Indians to whom they had devoted their lives. "Probably we have no such minute and detailed account of the American Indian mind in contact with civilization as that left us in the voluminous correspondence of the Whitmans." The editors resent "the common and emotional version of an innocent and noble red race being crushed by a ruthless, conscienceless white race," and they picture a vindictive savagery in Oregon seldom equalled by any Indians in our history.

In Part One, a seventy-eight page biographical sketch, the editors endeavor to place Whitman in his proper place in history. They maintain that Oregon was won from within and not from without, that as early as 1837 the Oregon settlements had expressed a desire for government regulation, that the migration of a thousand settlers to the Willamette Valley in 1843 was aided greatly by Whitman, and that Whitman's work for law, order, and American supremacy in Oregon was a powerful factor in the final acquisition of that country. Mrs. Whitman once wrote: "To be in a country among a people of no law, even if they are from a civilized land, is the nearest like a hell on earth of anything I can imagine." The Whitmans played a significant role in keeping the frontier quiet until Oregon was too strong to be endangered by an outbreak on the part of the Indians. Whitman had sane and wholesome views on the problems of the Americanization of Oregon.

Part Two, Oregon Mission Correspondence, consists of letters written by Whitman in the last four years of his life to the Prudential Committee of the American Board in Boston, and Secretary Greene's replies. A few other rare letters from the Whitmans to relatives or friends are also included. Arranged in chronological order, they show the culminating events and gathering shadows as the tragic last act unfolds. These letters throw considerable light on the problems of the Oregon settlers. They relate to agriculture, industry, trade, education, religion, medicine, and many other matters. They show that Whitman realized that his missions themselves would soon be swept aside. Above everything else they reveal Whitman's determination to make Oregon an American territory rather than an English colony.

HUGH T. LEFLER

University of North Carolina
Chapel Hill, North Carolina

Essays in Modern English History. In Honor of Wilbur Cortez Abbott. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1941. Pp. xii, 404. \$3.50.

Here is a volume of solid merit. There is naturally a considerable diversity in subject matter, yet the essays pertain to the history of Britain and the Empire

within a span of less than two centuries, and thus have a measure of unity. More important, however, is the high standard of scholarship and of exposition which they consistently maintain.

Dorothy K. Clark traces the evolution of a typical Restoration financial house, the Vine on Lombard Street, "from the shop of a working goldsmith to a bank with widespread transactions in private and public finance." Ethyn Williams Kirby discusses the efforts of clergymen of moderate views to secure a comprehensive church at the time of the Restoration. Analyzing party politics from 1688 to 1714, Robert Walcott, Jr. demonstrates that the functioning political unit was the relatively small faction, cemented together by personal leadership and family connection. William Thomas Morgan discusses the general election of 1715, "which fortified the position of the Hanoverian dynasty and fastened the Whigs' grip upon political power for more than half a century."

Lawrence H. Gipson finds the year 1749 an important milestone in British colonial policy, since it marks a turning point from a mercantilist policy based on commercial considerations to an imperialistic policy, "the policy of comprehending through conquest or diplomacy large bodies of land." This he demonstrates with reference to Nova Scotia. Edward Ely Curtis recounts the trials of General John Sullivan in raising and equipping an army for the Rhode Island campaign in 1778. Walter S. Hayward illuminates a neglected episode, and at the same time tells a good story, in his tragi-comic narrative of the expedition of 1779 against Penobscot. Throwing light on a little-known subject, Holden Furber describes Madras in 1787. He portrays a "frontier" community, perennially unstable, in which the Company was carrying on at a financial loss despite the growing prosperity of private enterprise.

Gerda R. Crosby traces the treatment which historians have accorded George III. She sets forth the conflicting contemporary interpretations, the nemesis of a royal reputation at the hands of the nineteenth century Whig masters of style, and the recent partial rehabilitation. Robert G. Albion illustrates the vicissitudes attending New York shipping during the Napoleonic era with accounts of specific voyages, seizures, and condemnation proceedings. Chester Kirby, discussing English game law reform, shows how the privileges of the aristocracy were modified, less because their social inferiors in the country wanted to take game, than because the urban middle class wanted to purchase it. A. R. M. Lower employs the timber trade of British North America to illustrate the persistence of mercantilism through the eighteen thirties.

Perhaps the highest praise that can be given this volume is that it seems not to be unworthy of the man whom President Seymour quotes in the foreword as

saying: "While one may admit that in its method history should and must be scientific, this need not and ought not to prevent its being literary on the side of presentation. Unless it is, it will not be read. If it is not read, it will lose much or most of its value as a guide to thought and action."

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Wild Seventies. By Denis Tilden Lynch. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. 1941. Pp. xv, 547. \$5.00.

This is the fifth book in the field of American history and biography by Mr. Lynch, who is a prominent New York journalist. Like his other books, this volume is written for the general reader and is interesting, lively, and readable. The decade 1870-1880 had a character—or lack of character—which was unique. "It was a period of depression, with hunger in the hovel, hardship in the mansion, and bankruptcy in public morality." It is the last of these traits which receives most emphasis. The decade was characterized by hard times, political corruption, industrial unrest and violence, agrarian uprisings, election steals, and debased public morals. It was a time "when the temple of justice became a brothel" and when "the worst enemies of the Republic, the spoils-men and the demagogues, rising to new heights, became supreme over our party form of government." This wild and violent decade also witnessed the rise of communism and the development of class hatred more bitter than anything up to that time. The South also had its troubles and during the decade won the fight for "White Supremacy."

Catchy chapter headings attract interest and reveal the general character of the book. Some of these titles are "A Perfect City Machine—Its Loot"; "Corruption's Last Line of Defense"; "A War of Mud—and a White Hat and a Coat"; "Humor Among Thieves"; and "Rat-Baiting Succeeds Bear-Baiting." There is an unusually good account of the political machines of the seventies, especially the Tweed Ring. Mr. Lynch describes the first political purge in our history, that by General Grant, and he says that the word "purge" was "alien to American political argot until 1870." The laborers of the period are portrayed as "crust-hunters, not bread winners."

Mr. Lynch gives many excellent pen-portraits of the colorful personalities of this sordid decade. There is "Boss" Tweed and his "demagogic spouters," who blazed the trail for other machine leaders throughout the nation; there is Jay Gould, "the personification of financial greed and treachery," and the "worst man on earth"; there is Jubilee Jim Fisk, who was "insanely boastful of having stolen the Erie

Railroad," and who maintained a harem and his pet harlot, Josephine Mansfield; and there is President Grant, whose intentions were better than his deeds, a pliable tool in the hands of designing men. There are reformers like Horace Greeley, who was an "irresponsible journalist"; the intrepid Charles Sumner, the most distinguished member of Congress, who ranked first on Grant's "purge list"; and there are Samuel Bowles, Whitelaw Reid and other reformers. Then there are such skilful political manipulators as Zachariah Chandler, Honest John Kelly, Roscoe Conkling, and others. And there is Samuel J. Tilden, who won the presidency and lost it. These are only a few of the colorful and dramatic figures who appear in the pages of this entertaining volume. The book is profusely illustrated.

HUGH T. LEFLER

University of North Carolina
Chapel Hill, North Carolina

International Rivalry in the Pacific Islands, 1800-1875. By Jean Ingram Brookes. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1941. Pp. ix, 454. \$5.00.

As Oceania becomes a stage for the contemporary world conflict, knowledge of its history has increased value. Such knowledge has heretofore been scarce and often unreliable. Dr. Brookes now presents a storehouse of information concerning the nineteenth century development of these heterogeneous islands drawn from the primary sources in England, France and the United States. His research has been prodigious, his documentation is interesting, and his point of view so objective that he even denies his readers the benefit of his own conclusions. His bibliography alone makes his work a treasury for scholars.

Islands, however, are a cluttered subject. And when their history is made by the missionaries, traders, civil servants and naval officers of several western nations in connivance with bewildered or ambitious native chieftains, the subject almost defies organization. Dr. Brookes takes refuge in the chronological order and avoids the use of clarifying subdivisions throughout his long, detailed chapters, providing only an adequate index to direct readers with specific interests. Although there are occasional pages where the humor and irony of the author escape, the book is dull and sometimes confused reading. It is disappointing that such valuable material could not be more effectively moulded and that large scale maps were not used to make it more graphic.

Such limitations in style, fortunately, cannot destroy the drama in the turbulent history of these south Pacific islands when they first attracted the attention of Europe and the United States. Students of western imperialism in the China seas will find many familiar patterns in the records of New Zea-

land, and Hawaii, Tahiti, Fiji, Samoa and their neighbors. Here also the conflicts and rivalry among the Europeans was incessant and many sided. Here too, the intermittent interest of home governments in expansion and empire confused and exasperated their newly established nationals whose appetites for more land and power were insatiable. Here again men who had risked the hazards of unknown lands and peoples were ruthless in their use of opportunities for gain regardless of the restraints of high minded missionary boards and statesmen at home. Thus, the horrors of a traffic in native labor for the development of sheep-herding, nacre fisheries and farming were an integral part of the wester impact on Oceania. Independent merchantmen seeking quick profits by any means practised other cruelties. Consuls and naval officers entrusted with unusual power because of the poor communications with their superiors in London and Washington sometimes abused their authority in the interest of their material success. Here, as in China, however, British naval officers and thence the Board of Admiralty in Whitehall, viewed the problems of natives and colonists with the greatest realism and strove more than other observers to control the demands and outrages of their aggressive and mercenary countrymen.

Not only did Englishmen, Frenchmen and Americans contend with each other for the control of these islands but groups within each nationality struggled among themselves for the making of island policy. Missionaries, both Protestant and Catholic, merchants, farmers, penologists and military strategists saw in these remote areas centers for their individual tasks. Today the East challenges the West for the domination of Oceania. The work of these pioneers will explain much of its desirability.

GRACE FOX

Washington, D.C.

George Washington's World. By Genevieve Foster. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1941. Pp. x, 348. Illustrated. \$2.75.

In this uniquely-organized book, the author has selected and correlated important world events during the years spanned by George Washington's life. When Washington was a boy, Franklin was experimenting with electricity, an unhappy German princess became Catharine of Russia, Louis XV ruled France, and Voltaire fought with his pen. The volume is organized into six parts, treating important world events when Washington was a boy, a young soldier, a farmer, a commander, a citizen, and President. Sketches, anecdotes, details of living, and the development of science, industry, literature and art are woven into a valuable and most useful book, especially for young people who are trying to corre-

late and visualize the events of this period in their relationship to each other. The double-page illustrations before each section are excellent visual aids, which will fit into the scheme of a worth-while volume.

International Executive Agreements. By Wallace McClure. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. xxii, 449. \$4.75.

In this scholarly work, Dr. McClure has developed a constitutional thesis of extraordinary interest and importance which is designed to facilitate a more active participation of the United States in world affairs. The thesis is, briefly: (1) that "the President can do by executive agreement anything that he can do by treaty, provided Congress by law cooperates," and (2) that "there is a very wide field of action in which the cooperation of Congress is not necessary." The supporting argument, drawn extensively from judicial decisions and constitutional usage, both direct and by analogy, is elaborate and closely reasoned. The first proposition is incontestable. To take several examples of important international actions on the part of the United States in which congressional resolutions rather than treaties were employed, one may mention the annexations of Texas and of Hawaii, and American adherence to the Universal Postal Union and the International Labor Organization. As for the second thesis, it is true that simple executive action is sufficient in a number of fields, and, indeed, the United States became a member of an important body like the Pan-American Union in this way, but it is doubtful whether such action would be judicially sustained if far-reaching commitments were involved.

When one remembers the difficulty of getting two affirmative votes for every single negative vote in the Senate's action on treaties, and that this factor alone prevented the United States from becoming a member of the League of Nations and of the World Court, it is not surprising that the proportion of treaty to non-treaty action has steadily declined over the years. In the last half-century, Dr. McClure points out, the United States concluded 524 treaties against 917 executive agreements or congressional authorizations by a simple majority. It may well be that this more democratic and effective procedure will gradually supplant the antiquated, cumbersome and irrational two-thirds rule of the Senate treaty power. If so, it might enable the United States to undertake more extensive international responsibilities in the post-war world than the Senate has permitted her to accept in the past.

WILLIAM P. MADDOX

University of Pennsylvania,
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

— JUST PUBLISHED —

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Stars and Strikes: The Unionization Of Hollywood.

By Murray Ross. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. xi, 233. \$2.75.

It is interesting to discover in an industry which has frequently been criticized for its absurd salary scale and fantastic economy that union activity is almost as old as the industry itself, and that even Hollywood's high price talent is organized.

This book is a history of the unionization of Hollywood from the beginnings when Los Angeles was an "open-shop" town until the present. The history is a unique one because of the varying types of labor involved, including creative talent and skilled professionals, as well as studio technicians and craftsmen, and because several of the techniques developed in Hollywood might well be applied in other fields. The very early organization of studio craftsmen follows a familiar pattern, but from the moment that the Actors' Equity Association began its campaign to obtain jurisdiction over screen players, the picture is a confused one of complex jurisdictional disputes, thrown into relief by the producers' willingness "to pay a price for industrial harmony." (And who has not heard of William Bioff?)

Mr. Ross writes well, and his understanding of the industry will more than satisfy those connected with it. Students of labor will find a wealth of material

here concerning the jurisdictional dispute and the influence exerted on labor by the NRA. The study is a valuable source book of a subject that has hitherto been unexplored, and the author deserves credit for his pioneering, and for his astute use of "widely scattered materials": union documents, trade agreements, government files, trade papers, and personal interviews.

In the preface, Mr. Ross states that: "Few other places or industries can furnish as good a cross section of the trade union movement." It is regrettable that this thesis is not apparent in the study. However, this is a minor fault in a work which should be a valuable source book, and which more than fulfills the author's promise that it should prove "of interest to students of both labor and the motion pictures."

MARJORIE PFAELZER

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Atlantic System: The Story of Anglo-American Control of the Seas. By Forrest Davis. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1941. Pp. xvi, 363. \$3.00.

Competent studies in the field of Anglo-American relations are not so numerous as is popularly supposed. Hence, we welcome this dramatic narrative, ranging from about 1895 to 1941, by a journalist

who avoids the customary sentimentality and who has taken some pains to disentangle confusing episodes. The ocean is the hero of the piece.

"I observed that while few Americans had a genuinely kind word for England, we moved irresistibly to her side as we had in 1917. I wanted a key to this contradiction, an explanation that would withstand the surface wash of Anglophobe and Anglophile. So I fell to with Admiral Mahan and his contemporaries." The quest has been rewarding. While not accepting the jacket blurb that "extraordinary documentary proof" has been used, one must admit that Mr. Davis sustains admirably his thesis that the United States fought in 1917 to help England retain domination over the Atlantic for our own good and selfish reasons, and that we are contending now to uphold the joint Anglo-American dominion over the seven seas, and rightly so. The author criticizes Wilson for propagating the "crusade" theory of the American war effort, misleading both Europe and America, and for throwing away an accord between the world's greatest powers while striving for a shaky World Order.

Diplomacy is illuminated by keeping military and naval considerations to the fore. In some sense the theme of the volume concerns the vital question of the century, whether the domination of the oceans or the continents will prevail.

R.H.H.

That They May Have Life: The Story of the American University of Beirut, 1866-1941. By Stephen B. L. Penrose, Jr. New York: The Trustees of the American University of Beirut, 1941. Pp. xviii, 347. Illustrated. \$3.75. Sold by the Princeton University Press.

Slowly it may dawn on Americans that their contributions to world history have been rich and varied, and that the contributors often go unsung in their native land. This life history of an American university with nearly five thousand graduates distributed through the Near East is more than a chronicle of missionary work or college administration under difficult conditions; it is a suggestion, often not so fully discussed as one would wish, of American influence in the Arabic awakening. Perhaps the greatest achievement is an institution that can survive fifty nationalities and thirty religious sects.

R.H.H.

The Social Life of Primitive Man. By Sylvester A. Sieber and Franz H. Mueller. St. Louis, Mo.: B. Herder Book Company, 1941. Pp. xiii. 566. \$3.50.

This volume presents a summary in English of the ethnological theories of the Vienna school of anthropologists, generally known as the Kulturkreis School.

Their approach involves the fitting of all cultural data into a single world-wide scheme of historical development on the basis of various methods of controlling and interpreting the available factual material. To this end they have amassed a tremendous quantity of evidence concerning which they have been most meticulous and erudite. However, in any attempt to cram into a single universal scheme such fluid, diverse and variable factors as that which comprise man's culture in all parts of the world, present and past, one soon passes from the realm of fact to that of fancy whereby previous situations must be induced and still earlier ones presupposed. Such assumptions, if accepted, make it possible to interpret all facts accordingly and subsequent conclusions drawn can be used in turn to seem to substantiate the original premises.

The Kulturkreis approach has never attracted a following among American anthropologists who, although appreciative of the major contributions in factual material, have remained unimpressed by the theoretical bases. *The Social Life of Primitive Man* should be of most interest to those concerned with the history of ethnological theory. Since the data are discussed within a context of Kulturkreis dicta, satisfactory, independent evaluations of the results can be attained only by those who are specialists in anthropological facts.

D. S. DAVIDSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The French Laic Laws (1879-1889). By Evelyn M. Acomb. New York: Evelyn M. Acomb. New York, Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. 282. \$3.50.

The creation of the secular state is one of the most interesting developments of modern history. A small fragment of this subject is considered in this little book. It is divided into two almost equal parts, the second concerned with the subject mentioned in the title, and the first describing the background of these laic laws in the preceding decade (1869-1879).

The second part of this work has those virtues which we can always expect in a good doctoral dissertation: diligent examination of the available materials, attention to detail, meticulous comparison of different authorities. The various laic laws are examined with the parliamentary arguments on both sides. This presentation of both sides of the discussion and the author's realization that this controversy was not a struggle between modern liberalism and ancient intolerance, but a struggle for survival between two conflicting ways of life both ready to use either liberalism or intolerance as occasion offered are the chief virtues of this second part of the volume.

The first half of the volume has the chief weak-

nesses which we have come to expect even in the better doctoral dissertations: lack of historical perspective and failure to generalize. Issues are described while the principles of the contending groups are left unstated. On issues the parties shifted while their principles remained fixed. Abolition of the Concordat of 1801, which had been sought by the clericals from 1816 to 1834, was sought by the extreme anti-clericals after 1878; freedom of association and of education, usually on the programs of secular liberals, were frequently advocated by clericals in the nineteenth century and opposed by the anti-clerical Left. Only a careful presentation of principles can make issues like these clear.

In a few places we wondered if Miss Acomb's failure to take a more generalized view of this controversy had not resulted in some confusion in her own mind. Anti-clericalism and religious scepticism are quite distinct phenomena, above all in France. We fear that Miss Acomb is either failing to make this distinction or is unfamiliar with the hoary antiquity of anti-clericalism in France when she writes (on page 50) that anti-clericalism's "deepest roots were in the scientific advancement of the 17th and 18th centuries."

In general the chief virtue of this earlier part of the book lies in its emphasis on the great number of factors (including domestic politics, foreign policy, and intellectual trends) which were converging to bring about the laic policy of the republican government.

CARROLL QUIGLEY

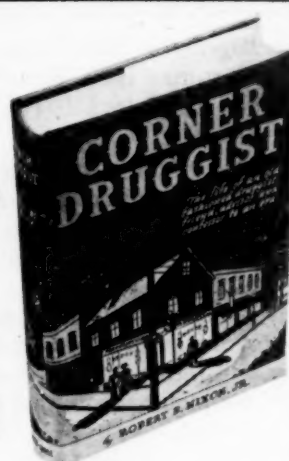
School of Foreign Service
Georgetown, University

The Crisis of 1830-1842 in Canadian-American Relations. By Albert B. Corey. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941. Pp. xvii, 203. \$2.50.

This very scholarly volume does much to bring to a proper focus the consequences of the Canadian rebellions in British-American and Canadian-American relations, without neglecting the emphasis usually placed on the struggle for self-government in British North America in the thirties or the Northeastern boundary dispute between Maine and New Brunswick. One is convinced that the presence of Britain in North America "was immediately responsible for magnifying, as between Canada and the United States, disputes which might never have assumed more than transitory and local significance had Canada been an independent nation." And as Professor Shotwell states in the introduction, the volume helps to correct the superficial idea that the "unarmed frontier" was the guarantee of peace; the achievement came from the difficult development of trust and confidence, the success of peaceful settlements of a whole series of difficult crises.

R.H.H.

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TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

The Pageant of South American History. By Anne Merriman Peck. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. x, 405. Illustrated. \$3.00.

If future North Americans are to be less ignorant than we are about South America, they must be given books to read in school now. Two sorts of books are needed: textbooks to be followed in daily recitation, and collateral reading. The textbook ought to be carefully planned in scope, exact in detail, and written to provoke thought and discussion. The other category will include many types of books, and there is only one requirement: that they be stimulating in a truthful way.

The main criticism of this book is that it falls into neither category. It is not precise or detailed enough for a text, and too dull, in its generality, for straight reading. What makes reading interesting to the young is tangible detail: no one is satisfied to be told that the llama is "a peculiar beast of the Andes." To be sure, there is little time for detail when one has the task of covering some twenty centuries in ten different countries, all within four hundred pages. This the author has actually accomplished, with a high standard of accuracy. The book is comprehensive and impartial; it is moreover the first response to a real need. From this point of view it can be recommended, as an earnest endeavor to provide a simplified study of South American history.

ELIZABETH WILDER

The Library of Congress,
Washington, D.C.

People Are Important. By Floyd Ruch, Gordon N. Mackenzie, and Margaret McLean. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1941. Pp. xii, 283. Illustrated. \$1.32.

The authors have made a real contribution to the instructional material for the secondary schools. For years thoughtful educators have been aware that the secondary education which many pupils receive is inappropriate. With very few exceptions, however, these educators fit the characterization which von Raumer made of Wolfgang Ratke: "He had sagacity enough to perceive the defects of the systems in vogue, but not enough to remedy them."

For example, the recent American Council on Education Report, *What The High Schools Ought To Teach*, declared:

It is not clear how the urgent problem that confronts American secondary schools is to be solved. It is quite certain that the present curricula of these schools are inadequate. It is equally certain that generation after generation is passing through these schools and coming out

grossly unprepared to face the demands of modern life.

The Council recommended "that a course in personal problems be made a major aspect of instruction through class instruction or private reading." It warned, however, that agreement that a new course was desirable did not insure its success. "The Herculean task of really working out a new program of instruction is not understood, and consequently reform moves forward slowly." The authors of *People Are Important* are to be congratulated on succeeding in the Herculean task of preparing new materials of instruction.

People Are Important is a book with a clear aim: to help young people to understand themselves and their fellow humans better. It explains human nature in language high school students can understand and in a very interesting way.

The book contains chapters on such problems as choosing a vocation, choosing a mate, and getting along with others. The chapters present the facts; there is no sermonizing. The findings of pertinent research are brought out and the discussions are illuminated by some well chosen case studies. There are many splendid, true to life illustrations.

There is a short, annotated list of suggested readings at the end of each chapter. There are no suggested topics for discussion or suggested activities at the end of the chapters. This is not, however, the result of any oversight. A number of suggested activities and discussion questions are included as an integral part of each chapter.

The book should be very useful as a text in courses in mental hygiene and personal problems and as a reference in courses in social studies. It is an excellent instructional aid for the new secondary education.

HARRY A. BECKER

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Hamden, Connecticut

Ethics and Social Policy. By Wayne A. R. Leys. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1941. Pp. 522. \$3.00.

Here are riches in the cloak of simplicity. This introduction to the main types of ethical theory is designed to be put into the hands of college students. Reversing the old fashioned order, the author begins with questions which occupy the student's mind, demonstrates that their solution involves an understanding of general principles, and so leads to an exposition of the great ethical systems, constantly relating them to the main areas of contemporary controversy. The scope of the work is accurately described in the preface:

Questions of educational and legal policy introduce the reader to the differences between de-

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scriptive and normative judgments. A discussion of economic plans leads . . . to a quest for consistency of purpose. The rival ethics of the good and of the right are products of this quest. Controversies regarding sex and health raise the question of securing general moral agreement. In this connection it is necessary to review the relativist and absolutist theory of morals. Alternative plans of government cannot be evaluated without criticizing the various kinds of immoralism, and they call for a definition of the epistemological assumptions of ethics. Finally the choice between the dictatorial and the democratic patterns of leadership require the reader to review most of the principles and problems of ethical theory. A chapter on the leader principle serves as a summary.

The emphasis is on sound procedures in democratic action, with due place given to the leader, the partisan, the expert and the "bystanders."

The text is enlivened by a wealth of illustrations and quotations ranging from the Bible and Plato to current magazine articles and Joseph Goebbels. Its usefulness is augmented by footnotes, thought-provoking exercises (with passages for supplementary reading), bibliographies, two appendices, a names

index and a subject index, charts and diagrams.

The author's aim has been to stimulate his readers to decide for themselves what they "really" think, and to enable them to reach more informed and intelligent judgments as prerequisites of action. Dr. Leys does not approve what he curiously calls "ivy towers." He is not at any pains to conceal his own positions as e.g. a pluralist, a relativist and a determinist, or to hide his own solutions for labor disputes and other difficulties. However, he is careful not to force his solutions on his students. The range of digested knowledge, philosophic, literary, historical, sociological, shining through the work is encyclopedic, yet not a page is "academic" and every point is made with clarity. The undergraduate who can work through this book and fail to grasp the fundamentals, interest and relevance of ethics, should be sent home.

W. EDWIN COLLIER

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

The Struggle for World Order. By Vera Micheles Dean. In *Social Action* for November 15, 1941. Council for Social Action of the Congregational Christian Churches, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City. Pp. 96. 25 cents.

This study by the well-known member of the staff of the Foreign Policy Association appears also as a new Headline Book, one of the series published by the association. Mrs. Dean reviews the reasons why treaties after World War I failed to make peace and sketches the causes of the ferment, especially in Central Europe, in the 1920's and 1930's. What may be the nature of tomorrow's world, totalitarian style and democratic, is suggested, and America's part in it is proposed. Maps, charts, and cartoons help the text. A brief, well-chosen bibliography is appended. Maturer high school youth will find guidance for their thinking about the post-war world in this able discussion for the general citizen.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Fulcher of Chartres: Chronicle of the First Crusade. Translated by Martha E. McGinty. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1941. Pp. x, 90. \$1.00.

An auspicious revival of the well known series *Translations and Reprints*. A good selection, well translated, which will be widely adapted for classroom use.

The Failures of Peace. By Kent Forster. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1941. Pp. vi, 159. Cloth \$2.50. Paper, \$2.00.

A timely analysis of the search for a negotiated peace during the first World War.

The Foundations of Conservation Education. By the Committee on Conservation Education. Washington, D.C.: The National Wildlife Federation, 1941. Pp. vi, 242. Illustrated. Cloth \$1.00, Paper 60 cents.

No. 3 of *Education in Conservation* edited by Henry B. Ward, especially for teachers. Excellent, stimulating chapters. Should be in all school libraries.

The Subject Fields in General Education. Edited by John J. De Boer. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1941. Pp. ix, 239. \$1.50.

A report of the National Commission on Co-operative Curriculum Planning. Thirteen chapters which consider the aims of instruction in high school subject fields with a view of discovering areas of common interest and resources which might be used in an inter-departmental school program. The Commission represents more than twenty national and regional associations.

Workbook in American History. By Rudolph L. Biese. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1941. Pp. 171. \$1.10.

Designed to accompany Faulkner's *American Political and Social History*. Based on classroom experience.

Federal Finances in the Coming Decade. By Carl Shoup. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. xii, 121. \$1.00.

A scholarly effort to promote a careful discussion of the next decade in terms of fiscal policy. Provocative reading.

Writing History. By Sherman Kent. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1941. Pp. xi, 136. \$1.00.

A very useful guide to put in the hands of college students—and others. Discusses the selection of topics, elements of research and style. Not dull.

America for Me. By Mary M. McBride. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. 102. \$1.00.

A stirring book by a famous radio columnist. Makes use of pithy American incidents.

Occupational Mobility: Democratic Efficiency through the Use of Human Resources. By Omar Pancoast, Jr. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. viii, 155. \$1.75.

An important study demonstrating that employment can be increased by increasing the training or mobility of workers as a whole. Examines the effects of a large-scale program of vocational guidance.

Discovering Geography: Industry. By L. Dudley Stamp and others. London: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. 122. Illustrated. 75 cents.

Practical text. Each chapter is introduced by work questions and followed by additional questions. Well illustrated.

The War: Second Year. By Edgar McInnis. New York: Oxford University Press, 1941. Pp. ix, 318. Maps. \$2.00.

This useful continuation volume ends with September 1941.

A History of South Africa. By C. W. De Kiewiet. New York: Oxford University Press, 1941. Pp. xi, 292. \$3.75.

A study of the essential facts in Africa's economic and social development.

Language in Action. By S. I. Hayakawa. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1941. Pp. ix, 245. \$2.00.

A valuable book for those who want to speak accurately and read intelligently. An effort to make semantics serve democracy.